# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 9, 1903.*

## The Week.

President Roosevelt's speech on the Trusts betrays a dawning consciousness that the time for platitudes has passed and the hour of practical action arrived. He has got his anti-Trust legislation, now what is he going to do with it? The affair is in his own hands. His new Bureau of Corporations can be rendered an efficient instrument for securing publicity if he wishes to make it such. On this subject he does not indulge very bold promises. We must be patient. Organization of the new department will be necessarily slow, and its first activities tentative. Undoubtedly; but what are we to say of the President's flat declaration that further legislation is "impracticable"? That is to discredit in advance the very law of which he is boasting, for an essential part of it is its plan to gather "such information and data as will enable the President of the United States to make recommendations to Congress for the regulation of such commerce, etc." Yet here is Mr. Roosevelt practically notifying his Commissioner of Corporations that he wants no such information, and will make no use of it if he gets it.

In the same breath with his intimation that he means to make a very polite and lady-like use of the weapon against Trusts which Congress gave him, Mr. Roosevelt announces that he will not touch the really deadly weapon of tariff revision. As far as he is concerned, the tariff-protected Trusts may continue to hide behind the Dingley law, and utilize its aid in preying upon the consumer. The President is not willing to go even as far as Secretary Root, and admit the possible need of legislation to prevent the tariff from being abused by Trusts, and to compel them to sell their goods at home as cheaply as abroad—or, at any rate, at a "fair" price. Mr. Roosevelt pushes all this away, with schoolboy cock-sureness, as a plan for "putting an end to the prosperity of the country." Congressman Babcock is nearer right. He declared on Friday that the next Congress is "pledged to a revision of the tariff," and that, but for such a pledge, the Republicans would have lost their majority. Now Babcock personally does not count. He ran away like a frightened hare last winter, when courage and backbone on his part would have forced tariff revision to the front, and he will doubtless do so again. But he clearly states the situation. His forecast of an immense lift to the Democratic party by means of the tariff issue, if the Republicans show that they are unwilling or unable to correct the flagrant injustice of the existing law, is only that of thousands of Republicans. President Roosevelt's friends say that he has shrewdly stolen the Trust issue from the Democrats. But if he hands them over the tariff issue, he will be profited nothing; and all that he says about Trusts will be only as so much water for the Democratic mill.

The Trades Assembly of Kansas City petitions President Roosevelt, in his present tour, to boycott the Union Pacific Railway, which has recently put certain of its machinists on piece work. While the President's enthusiasm for organized labor is well known, it is probable that he will hold to his original itinerary. To do otherwise might subject him to some inconvenience. Other railways beside the Union Pacific may fall under the ban; hotels, too, are subject to boycott by various unions, even private citizens in the West may suddenly be declared "unfair," now that janitors and other domestic servants are unionized. In fact, if Mr. Roosevelt attempted to travel respecting everywhere this peculiar form of tabu, his course would inevitably recall that childish game the skill of which lay in not stepping on the spots in the carpet. But the President has had the boycott at home, in the case of rival painters' unions in the White House, and knows very well that such nonsense as the Kansas City resolution is frequently perpetrated merely to advertise the union—a fact which critics of the eccentricities of unionism must not forget.

The exordium of Secretary Root's address before the Home Market Club at Boston last week was a laudation of the brute majority. Glancing at the pitiful minority that wishes the tariff revised, he reminded us that there are some—one in a hundred perhaps—who are always in opposition. He warns everybody not to imagine that "their loud cries of dissent indicate public judgment." Still flouting "this useful but trying class of our fellow-citizens," he finds that they have recently and capriciously turned against the protective system, but "if we had been a free-trade country they would have been protectionists." This persiflage at the expense of minorities would be much more effective in another mouth than Mr. Root's. He has not hesitated, on occasion, to join that "useful but trying class" which dares to speak its mind against majorities and foregone conclusions. We take pleasure in reprinting words spoken by Mr. Root at the Carnegie Hall meeting, held December 23, 1896, in favor of Mr. Choate's candidacy for the Senate. If ever there was a forlorn hope, it was the attempt to force Mr. Choate upon the Platt machine at Albany. Mr. Root, however, rejoicing in the very difficulty of the endeavor, said:

> "Our voice in this great contest is but the voice of one crying in the wilderness. Members of the Legislature are elected; they are about to take their places; they are about to declare their choice. But one thing we can do. We can say loudly what we think it is the duty of the State of New York to do. . . . Far distant be the day when the people assent to the proposition that, under any circumstances whatever, it is an impertinence for any citizen, however humble he may be, however few they may be who agree with him, to express to his representatives his sentiments and wishes regarding their action."

It is a greatly changed Mr. Root who to-day has an ironical sneer for such as waste their voices in the wilderness. He now professes the creed of things as they are, and, very skilfully showing the enormous difficulties that tariff revision involves, he assumes that nothing can be done for the present. He even lays down maxims on the convenient season for revision, which he admits as a theoretical possibility: (1) No change of the schedule must be undertaken while a Presidential campaign is impending. In other words, not this year or next. (2) The tariff should be revised by its friends. But since its friends clearly dislike to revise it, it should and will remain unrevised, maugre the cries of a factious minority. We have no other comment to make on this facile sort of prediction than to say that Mr. Root assumes the prophetic air in tariff matters with singular ill grace. Congress threw back his Cuban tariff bill in his face, and mangled his Philippine schedules out of all recognition. Had he followed his own teachings, he would have realized that the immutability of the Dingley schedules is hard fact, and would have saved his official shins.

An unpleasant impression is certainly made by the correspondence between President Roosevelt and ex-Senator Simon of Oregon. It is not simply that the President appears to have impetuously promised an appointment which he strangely forgot to make, but that he so ostentatiously puts his neck in the yoke held out to him by the Senate. "They [the two Senators from Oregon] *cannot consent*," he writes, "to Mr. Steele's receiving the appointment which I had designed to give him. . . . I very much regret to say that it would, of course, be useless to send it in." This it is to be a Constitutional President! Like Ormuzd, Mr. Roosevelt would be glad to have his good way, but the Senate Ahriman will not let him. One is reminded of Macaulay's attempt to explain the existence of evil by contending that the Ruler of the Universe

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was limited by the fixed decrees of fate. When this was reported to Dr. Thompson, Master of Trinity, he remarked, "What a thoroughly Whig doctrine—a Constitutional God!"

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Peculiar interest attached to the Ohio municipal elections on Monday. They were the first held under the new general law determining the form of the government of cities throughout the State, and were expected, besides, to throw considerable light on the political drift. The result, as between parties, is something like a stand-off. In Cincinnati the Republicans won by an unexpectedly large majority, while the Democrats, under the leadership of Mayor Johnson, strengthened their hold upon the city of Cleveland, now the largest in Ohio. The latter event will be peculiarly galling to the Republicans, and especially to Senator Hanna. He had united all factions of his party in a determined effort to make an end of Johnson, but is worse beaten than before. His local prestige has thus had a rude buffet, and his hold on the State machine must be somewhat weakened. He had a candidate for Governor in the background, Mr. Myron T. Herrick of Cleveland, who will now be at liberty to give his undivided attention to business, and let politics go.

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The reëlection of Mayor Jones of Toledo is, politically, most amazing. He proclaimed himself a "Man without a Party." He had no organization, no "workers," no newspapers. The city press ignored him. The two parties had each their candidate, for whom an active campaign was made. Yet the ridiculed Jones came out with as many votes as his two rivals had together. This repeated success of one who has some grotesque characteristics, yet who has evidently impressed himself on his fellow-citizens as an honest man, without the fear of a boss or a machine before his eyes, is more than a passing curiosity. It has a lesson for politicians, as well as for those ambitious to serve the public, if they would but read it. As for the overwhelming defeat of Mr. Ingalls in Cincinnati, he apparently suffered from too much thundering in the index. His programme was a little too ostentatiously marked out in advance—Mayor in April, Governor next November, President in 1904. These are the successive rounds of the ladder by which many a man has attempted to mount ever since Mr. Cleveland showed how easily it might be done. But, thus far, every one who has essayed to imitate him has fallen with a crash. History does not repeat itself except in exposing the folly of those who think it will. We had better pick out our Mayors without hoping that they may prove Governors or Presidents.

When Judge Adams granted a temporary injunction against a strike of the trainmen and firemen of the Wabash Railway, there was general acquiescence in it both by the parties concerned and by public opinion. It was understood, however, that there was no process of law by which men could be held to service and labor without their consent. It was proper that the situation should be cleared, that irreparable damage should be prevented, and that the people served by the railroads, to whom the movement of trains was indispensable, should not be deprived of it without notice; but, of course, if the men were determined to quit work they could not be prevented from doing so in an orderly way. So the Judge has dissolved the injunction in terms as dignified as those in which he granted it. He finds that the employees of the road were not engaged in an unlawful conspiracy, that they were not acting under coercion in making their demand for an increase of wages, and that they were exercising their undoubted rights as citizens. As they have the right to make the demand, they may strike if the demand is not complied with, but the strike must not be attended with violence or the destruction of property, or by coercive measures to prevent the railroad company from employing other help to move its trains. In conclusion, the Judge expresses the hope that the men and the company will submit their conflicting claims to arbitration if they are unable to come to an agreement otherwise. There is fair prospect that such an agreement may be reached.

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In the year 1891, organized labor procured the passage of a law by the Legislature of Indiana fixing the minimum wages of unskilled laborers employed by counties, cities, and towns at 20 cents an hour. The Supreme Court of the State has just decided that the act is unconstitutional, since it deprives the counties, cities, and towns of freedom to make contracts. If the Legislature can fix a minimum wage, says the court, it can fix a maximum. It holds, moreover, that this is class legislation, fixing, perhaps, higher pay for laborers in public employment than for persons doing the same work for private persons. It is quite conceivable that two men might be at work side by side building roads, one for the county at 20 cents per hour, and the other for a trolley company at half the price. The theory of the promoters of the law is, that if they can compel the county to pay 20 cents, the men who are working for private parties will refuse to work for less, and thus the whole scale of wages will be raised. But it is clear that they will have to work on some other plan than this, since liberty of contract cannot be denied to public corporations any more than to private ones.

A Rutland jury has awarded $2,500 damages to a local manufacturing company which brought suit against a labor organization. More than one hundred members of the union were made defendants in the action, and their individual property holdings were attached. The suit was the result of a strike, and on the trial the company showed that it had been substantially injured by unlawful acts of the strikers. It was prevented in many cases by intimidation on the part of members of the labor organization from employing non-union men. Those whom it succeeded in employing were excluded from boarding-houses, owing to threats of the strikers, and had to be provided for by the company. Besides this, private detectives and watchmen had to guard its property. The interesting point of the decision is that the individual members of the organization, upon whom service was secured, are held personally liable, and the damages awarded must be paid from their property, which has been attached. Whether or not the union itself owns any property is therefore of no importance. This is an indirect, but in Vermont at least an apparently effective, means of establishing responsibility on the part of labor unions. If the verdict is upheld, such organizations in Vermont will no longer be able to engage in boycotts, intimidation, and violence regardless of legal consequences; nor, we may be sure, will the example be lost elsewhere.

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We have not had the pleasure of inspecting the blacklist of the Central Federated Union, but, from the accounts which appear from time to time, we are forced to believe that it is a long one, containing many distinguished names. It would be unfortunate, doubtless, from the Union's point of view, if this list should become an honor roll, but something of the sort seems not unlikely to happen. The latest addition, according to report, is the name of Street Commissioner Woodbury, who is punished for refusing to sanction a change from white to brown or black in the uniform of the street cleaners. Mr. Woodbury based his refusal largely on the fact that the adoption of the white uniform was due to Col. Waring. The public will fully agree with the Commissioner that it would be a great misfortune to destroy any part of the influence which the memory of Col. Waring has on the Department. Besides this, the reasons which, in spite of the ridicule of the fun-makers, brought about general approval of the white uniforms when first introduced, are as convincing now as ever. By all means let us retain our "white wings," and let them remember to clean the streets in the way which Waring taught them.

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The most striking feature of the passage of the new Excise Tax bill by the

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New York Assembly on March 31, was the weakness of the opposition as shown both in the test vote taken early in the day and also on the final roll call. Eighty-four of the eighty-nine Republicans were recorded in favor of the bill. Doubtless this was largely due to the peculiar methods adopted by the protesting liquor dealers. They began by extravagant threats of political retribution, and ended, according to common report, by cynically sending a corruption fund of huge proportions to Albany. As a result, such arguments as they might have presented were hardly brought forward at all, and were accorded practically no consideration. Action on the bill was unexpectedly hastened, and the doors were closed against the lobby. This was justified, if for no more definite reason, by the impression which the dealers themselves, with their open talk, had created. The bill is primarily a revenue measure. As such, it is expected to bring to the localities a total annual revenue of $9,000,000, and to the State treasury a like sum, which is $5,000,000 more than the present excise tax yields.

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The March number of the *Economic Journal* of London has a long article on the New York money market, in which some acute observations are recorded. Among the causes tending to stringency the writer mentions the fact that some of the largest city banks are not really independent entities. "They are inextricably drawn," he says, "into arrangements for carrying through vast operations in which their directors are not only interested but controlling factors." This is certainly true, and it goes far toward explaining the present situation. There are single banks and groups of banks of the first magnitude controlled by "promoters," or so much so at least that their executive officers are not quite free agents. Every bank ought to take care of its customers first—that is, to make advances to and discount the business paper of its depositors; but its ability to do so is dependent upon its cash reserves. If the reserves are too heavily drawn upon for "vast operations" of a non-mercantile character, which turn out to be more or less permanent investments, the bank cannot discharge its prime function of taking care of its customers, or can do so only partially. When a pinch comes, then, if it is dominated by promoters, it will curtail its loans to the smaller depositors. On the other hand, if the magnates do not get what they want, they can turn the bank officers out of their places. The National Banking act aims to prevent large advances of money to single individuals, or single interests, by a provision that no bank shall lend more than one-tenth of its capital to one person, corporation, or firm; but probably no person, corporation, or firm is ever prevented by that rule from getting any amount of money that a bank can supply if the applicant is a controlling factor in the management.

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In the evidence on the Union Pacific injunction mere hearsay played as large a part as it does in a fairy tale. It is "a man in high standing" who tells a well-known Republican politician that a notorious operator would sell to a great railroad operator certain shares of Southern Pacific stock at a price, and a smaller number of shares at a higher price. One is given to understand that the larger offer at the lower price was of pool stock, while the smaller offer at the higher price was of the individual holdings of the manager of the said pool. This duplicity of price and management has been emphatically denied, but the denial brings out strikingly the fact of an uncomfortable issue of veracity between prominent gentlemen supposed to be men of their word. One who attempts to take moral soundings in speculative pools will need a long line, and then may find no bottom. It is significant that a prominent Republican politician could believe that a great Wall Street operator was selling out his associates. In short, there seems to be a tendency to pool not only money and stock, but business honor as well. The stock and the honor, the whole contents of the pool in short, may apparently be sold out at various prices, like lemonade at a fashionable bazaar.

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As there is good reason to believe that the Danish Government will make another attempt to dispose of its West Indian possessions to this country, it is well to call attention to a report of the Danish Bureau of Statistics on the last census of the islands, taken at the same time with the census in Denmark, in February, 1901. The decrease of population on the three islands has been marked. In 1890, when the previous census was taken, the total population was 32,786; in 1901 it had fallen to 30,527. The loss was greatest on St. Croix, only one town, Frederiksstad, showing an increase. Of special interest, in connection with the possible annexation of the islands, are figures relating to illegitimate births, which constitute 70 per cent. of the total number. The census offers no particulars regarding the distribution of races, but it has been estimated that on the island of St. Croix the white people constitute only 3 per cent. Only 427 of the population are of Danish birth, and only 53 are from this country. The largest foreign population is found on St. Croix. Church affiliations are: Church of England, 36 per cent.; Roman Catholic, 28 per cent.; United Brethren (Moravian), 20 per cent., with only 2 per cent. belonging to the Lutheran, the Danish State Church.

During the great Italian strikes of four years ago the assertion was freely made that a revolutionary movement was masking in the guise of industrial agitation. The truth turned out to be that, while the strikes were of Socialistic origin, the dangerous form they assumed was due to tactless repressive measures on the part of a reactionary Government. While the parallel should not be unduly pressed, the general strike in Holland seems to be of somewhat similar origin and growth. The Dutch proletariat is protesting against Premier Kuyper's rigid labor laws, just as the Italian proletariat resented Rudini's stern application of military law. It will be remembered that the Dutch Premier some weeks ago, when a general strike seemed imminent, introduced bills authorizing a special brigade for service on the State railways, and appointing tribunals to pass on the legality of labor agitations. The laws themselves seem to be good laws. The plan, particularly, of putting the employees of State railways under military discipline has much to be said for it. It was the prompt mobilization of the Italian railway operatives, under this system, a year and more ago, that gave time for mature deliberation and the adjustment of grievances, thus averting a formidable strike.

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Government officials can never be permitted that freedom to drop their work without notice which is perhaps too readily accorded to private wage-earners. Premier Kuyper's bills do little more than apply this unquestionably sound principle. But it seems that they were introduced at a time and in a way to provoke precisely the situation they were intended to make impossible. The working people of Holland are striking to-day not, as they declare, on a matter of wages or general conditions of employment, but simply to secure the withdrawal of these obnoxious bills. When the tenacity of the Dutch character is considered, and the wealth of the working class and its consequent ability to maintain a long fight, the situation looks very serious. The talk of German intervention seems merely journalistic. The Kaiser can hardly mean to make unwelcome proffers of aid which would stamp him as the deliberate enemy of the peace of Europe. It looks as if the Dutch Government must pass through a stormy season, yet no one need doubt that the tight little kingdom is abundantly able to handle its own difficulties. But it is hard to see how Premier Kuyper can long keep his place in the face of a general strike, any more than Rudini could in Italy; and the solidarity of trades as remote as the railroad men and diamond cutters in the present movement attests the strength of the new industrialism in one of the most conservative of the European nations.

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*THE PRESIDENT ON HIS TRAVELS.*

Mr. Roosevelt's speech at Chicago on Thursday was an unnecessary preaching of the gospel to the already converted. The West certainly does not need to be taught swagger. At the very moment when superheated national jealousies on the subject of foreign complications were beginning to cool down, the President chose to inflame them again. It is like giving whiskey to a man in danger of sunstroke, instead of putting him in an ice pack. And if the speech errs sadly in point of taste and timeliness, its manner is surely of a sort to make the judicious grieve. Deprecate the inference as the President's friends may, his language went echoing across the sea as a rude defiance. His words were blows. He is the reincarnation of that quarrelsome Pole who, when remonstrated with and told that he had not really been insulted, replied, "Yes, I know that, but I thought it safer to knock him down."

President Roosevelt has the air of an enthusiastic discoverer of the Monroe Doctrine. He utters his vows with all the ardor of a lover at the feet of a blushing damsel, and as if she were not really a lady of a certain age who has had many suitors in her time. "I believe in the Monroe Doctrine with all my heart." We knew that, but what we doubted was whether his head had been sufficiently involved. That doubt cannot but be heightened by some of the strange statements of fact and sorry gaps in reasoning which appear in this latest Monroeizing of the President's. Mr. Roosevelt proceeded to construct his history of the Monroe Doctrine and its application to the interoceanic canal and to the question of national armaments. In his account of its beginnings, he said that it was purely our "primacy in strength" which led us to warn European Powers not to encroach upon American territory. This is to ignore entirely the fact that what John Quincy Adams and the men of his time objected to was the extension of the European "system" to this hemisphere—that is, government from a distance, arbitrary rule of people unrepresented. Our doing the same thing now in the Philippines might make us ready to be silent about all that; but if we speak of the matter at all, it is just as well not to pervert the historical fact. Time was when Theodore Roosevelt was full of this correct view of the Monroe Doctrine as a protest against colonial government. Hence it was that, in his magazine article of 1896, he wrote: "Every true patriot, every man of statesmanlike habit, should look forward to the day when not a single European Power will hold a foot of American soil." There spoke an enthusiasm for self-government which the writer, as little as his countrymen, then dreamed that the events of two years later would quench.

It was also the Monroe Doctrine, went on the President, in his easy improvisation of history, which made the United States determine that the isthmian canal should be built "by no foreign nation, but by ourselves." Thus summarily is blotted out the record regarding that French enterprise, the Panama Canal, to which the United States, by the hand of President after President and Secretary of State after Secretary of State, quietly assented. That the country turned a sharp corner and finally took the canal itself, is scarcely historic warrant for what the President now says we have "steadily believed." As little exact is his reference to the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, which, he says, "stipulated" that the United States should have the right to take "any measures which it found necessary to secure by its own forces the defence of the United States and the maintenance of public order." He was apparently thinking of the first treaty, which was, indeed, amended to that effect, and then rejected by Lord Lansdowne, partly on that very ground. In the treaty sent to the Senate by President Roosevelt on December 4, 1901, there is no such stipulation, but, on the contrary, a provision that "the canal shall be free and open to the vessels of commerce and of war of all nations."

One might pass over some of the President's slips in logic. He praised the "good faith" of Great Britain and Germany in the Venezuelan affair, yet went on to say that nothing but our superior naval strength could make the Monroe Doctrine "respected by any strong foreign Power." Was, then, our navy stronger than the combined fleets of England and Germany? Mr. Roosevelt explained that the reason we won so easily from Spain was that we were fully prepared; but shortly argued that "if we only prepare sufficiently, no war will ever come." Perhaps he meant this as an exercise in faulty reasoning for the Chicago students to correct. But there is no need to dwell upon minor defects when we have a speech which was one long blazing indiscretion from beginning to end. The worst of it is that President Roosevelt's acts are so much better than his words. He flings about verbal firebrands, but, in practice, he works for peace. Everybody familiar with the inside history of the recent Venezuelan imbroglio knows that the President was the patient and long-suffering man who soothed and held back the hot-heads in Congress and the navy. Why he, who knows so well how wild the naval officers were then, and are still, for a war with Germany—why he, who rebuked them and kept them in—why he, a man who acts as if he desired peace, should speak like a man spoiling for a fight, is, we confess, a great puzzle. He does not need to do it for the sake of popularity—that he already has. He surely cannot wish to affront the sober sentiment of this country, or to put himself in the posture of challenging foreign nations. What can be his motive? We know not, unless it be to emulate the example of the Emperor William, who talks more about war and does more for peace than, perhaps, any ruler living.

*PERAMBULATORY TARIFF NOTIONS.*

If President Roosevelt's speech at Minneapolis were submitted as a thesis for a prize or for a degree in political economy, it would be rejected by any board of examiners in the world. It is so self-contradictory and so at variance with former protectionist arguments that it cannot be taken seriously. Such a jumble cannot be held to express any real opinions of the speaker himself, but rather those which he thinks will just now catch the greatest number of votes.

The general tariff policy to which Mr. Roosevelt adheres, and to which he believes the country is committed, "is," he tells us, "fundamentally based upon ample recognition of the difference between the cost of production—*that is, the cost of labor*—here and abroad." Here he came very near tripping himself. It is not true that our general tariff policy is based upon the difference between cost of production here and abroad, but if it were so it would be easy to show that the cost of production is lower here than abroad as to a countless number of articles—so many, indeed, that cost of production has long since ceased to cut any figure as an argument for protection. Most articles of agriculture are in this category. Most of the products of iron and steel are in the same class. Wood, glass, borax, coal, and a thousand other things might be named whose cost of production is cheaper here than in any other country.

This truth evidently flashed upon Mr. Roosevelt before he finished his sentence. So he injected the words, "that is, the cost of labor," thus saving himself from one horn of a dilemma, but immediately impaling himself upon the other. He affirmed or insinuated that cost of production and cost of labor are the same thing, whereas every tyro knows that they are not the same. The natural resources of one country may be so superior to those of another that the cost of labor is not worth considering as an element of competition. One country may have machinery so much better than another that cost of labor ceases to be a factor of importance. In one country, labor may be more intelligent than in another, and may therefore supply a greater output in a given time. Finally, when other things are equal—when natural resources, machinery, and intelligence are substantially the same in two competing countries—the very fact that one of them pays higher wages than the other often gives that one an advantage. The higher wage makes the superior workman in the long run. This fact is well recognized in all manufac-

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turing industries. The workman who is only half fed and whose mind is distracted to pay his household expenses, cannot do the same amount of work as the one who has meat on his table at every meal and a growing surplus in the savings bank. It is a common complaint in both England and Germany today that they find it hard to compete with the United States in manufacturing on account of the high wages paid by us.

"It is a sign of a dogma in dissolution," said Professor Sumner, a quarter of a century ago, "to change its form, and to yield points of detail, while striving to guard its vested interests and traditional advantages." He was speaking of the dogma of protection, which was even then shifting its ground and trying to guard its vested interests while abandoning its old positions. It had gained its advantages by the "infant industry" plea, by telling us what a fine thing it would be for the country to build up manufactures, and how proper it would be to lower the tariff after this end was accomplished. Its advocates said, too, that when the time for revision came, the tariff would be revised by its friends. In their judgment the time for revision came twenty-two years ago. Their opponents were a good deal surprised by the announcement, and they welcomed the appointment of the Tariff Commission of 1882. This body, composed of the chosen leaders of protection, frankly declared that the duties on imports were too high, and that they ought to be lowered as much as 20 to 25 per cent. It seemed, for the moment, as though the beneficiaries of the tariff intended to keep their word; but when the bill which their Commission had prepared was laid before Congress, they rushed to Washington in droves and rent it into fragments. Since that time the tariff has been twice amended by the Republicans in the direction of higher instead of lower duties, and we now have the highest one ever known in the country's history, with possibly one exception.

Now, President Roosevelt tells us in substance that we have the mightiest and most prosperous manufacturing industry in the world (which is the truth), and for that reason ought not to abandon the policy of protection. The old arguments have been turned inside out and topsy-turvy. The dogmas upon which protection is founded are in dissolution, but the practice continues just the same. In one part of his speech Mr. Roosevelt seems to argue that the system ought never to come to an end, but, remembering at an opportune moment that Gov. Cummins and Chairman Babcock and other influential Republicans hold contrary views, he says, parenthetically, that changes may be made in particular paragraphs or schedules "wherever and whenever necessary." Then he introduces another saving clause—"if such change is demanded by the interests of the nation as a whole." Who is to determine when a change is necessary? Who is to decide whether the interests of the nation as a whole demand that our protected manufactures shall be sold as cheaply to domestic consumers as to foreigners? Until now we have allowed the producers of the goods to answer these questions for us, and we see no sign that President Roosevelt contemplates any different way of reaching a decision.

## *EXPLOITING THE PHILIPPINES.*

A frank confession, or perhaps we should say brutal exposure, of our commercial dealings with our colonial possessions is supplied in the March number of the *Journal of Political Economy*, from the pen of Mr. Robert F. Hoxie. He points out, with chapter and verse, that we have enacted laws to exploit the Philippines for our benefit and their detriment, that we have already violated our treaty with Spain, touching her right to equality of trade there, and that we are estopped by our own acts from demanding from other Powers an "open-door" policy in other countries of eastern Asia. This climax, or succession of climaxes, was no part of our purpose when we took the islands, nor has it been the result of deliberation at any time, but it was inevitable that private interests would be alert for gain; that they would go to Congress and to Departments in Washington and to the public authorities on the other side of the ocean, and that, by pushing here and there on the lines of least resistance, they would finally get what they wanted. As the Filipinos themselves were not consulted, it was quite natural that they should not be protected against exploiters. Does anybody ask why the Government of the United States did not protect them? The Government of the United States consists of persons who are engaged in protecting themselves. Their first and principal task is to prevent other persons from supplanting them in the places of power. That is Mr. Roosevelt's chief undertaking, and so it would be that of any President except one of a higher type than we are likely to see. That is the reason why the Filipinos have not been, and never will be, protected so long as they remain the subjects of a distant people who have none too much time to bestow upon their own government and to keep it in working order.

The first movement for the exploitation of the Philippines was made through tariff duties like those of the colonial system of the eighteenth century. The object of colonies, as then understood, was to have "outlets" for goods, where exclusive trading privileges should be enjoyed by the merchants of the mother country, or where they should be favored by discriminating duties. This idea was broached by Gen. Otis in a letter dated April 14, 1900, in which he innocently suggested a revision of the Philippine tariff by reducing the duties on articles imported from the United States. Such a reduction, he said, would be beneficial both to the business interests of the United States and to the Philippine people, while a similar reduction for European products would reduce the revenue of the islands without any compensating advantages. Authority for such a revision was granted at Washington. Presently there came a great number of petitions for reductions of the Philippine tariff for the benefit of our export trade without any regard to Philippine interests. A schedule of duties based upon this conception was adopted.

But that was not all. It was discovered that in our treaty with Spain we had agreed that she should have equal trading privileges with ourselves in the Philippines for ten years. Plans to circumvent this clause of the treaty in behalf of our exporters were brought forward. For example, the wines of Spain were entitled to admission on the same terms as our own, but it was found that Spanish wines contained a larger percentage of alcohol than those of California, and the shrewd suggestion was made that the duty should be a sliding scale based upon the alcoholic test, so as to give the California exporter an advantage. This cheating device was adopted. Mr. Hoxie reproduces a naïve correspondence on this subject between Mr. E. R. Lilienthal of the Crown Distilleries Company of San Francisco and Col. Clarence R. Edwards of the Insular Division of the War Department. The former expresses his thanks for the "patriotic impulse" which prompted our officials to "prefer American interests which have been hampered by the treaty with Spain." He concludes by saying, "All admit that, as the tariff is now framed, a decided advantage has been gained and will be realized." Col. Edwards replies, under date of October 14, 1901, without any apparent suspicion that a dishonorable act has been committed, saying: "To receive such recognition of effort made, from those interested, cannot be otherwise than gratifying to those who have participated in the framing of the tariff." Numerous other subterfuges were adopted to evade the Spanish agreement, and Col. Edwards was so well satisfied with the success of the plan that he assured the Republican members of the Ways and Mean Committee that "while no different duty in favor of American products is openly mentioned, the articles were so described as to allow an advantage to American goods."

The next chapter in the shameful record is the American tariff on Philippine products. We had made the Philippine tariff on American products to suit our-

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selves—that is, to suit the protected interests. Now we turned our thoughts to the other end of the bargain. The Philippine Commission had urgently requested a reduction of one-half of the Dingley rates of duty in favor of Philippine products. Congress allowed only 25 per cent. reduction, but at the same time it abolished certain Philippine export duties on goods coming to the United States, while maintaining them as to the same goods going to other countries. Among these was Manila hemp; the effect of the act was to give our manufacturers an advantage over those of Europe in the cordage trade. Thus we killed two birds with one stone—the Filipino taxpayer and the British rope-maker. But we did something more. We trampled under foot Secretary Hay's "open door" policy in China before the ink was fairly dry; for it is not to be supposed that any Power will consider itself committed to a trade policy in China which is not observed by ourselves in the Philippines.

"Given the conditions," says Mr. Hoxie, "the result was inevitable." So much was foretold by the Anti-Imperialists at the start. They said that if we seized the islands certain forces in which human greed bore the largest part, would be let loose with no effectual check upon them. These objectors did not, indeed, foresee the "felonious homicides" and all the barbarities that we should practise upon the unhappy people of those islands, but they did foresee that whenever a dollar could be made out of them, by fair means or foul, somebody, wrapping himself in the American flag, would find a way to get it.

### *ARMY STAFF PROBLEMS.*

It is fully two years since the system of line and staff details was established in the army by act of Congress. Up to that time the staff officers—paymasters, quartermasters, commissaries, adjutants-general, ordnance officers, and inspectors-general—were men selected from civil life, or from the line of the army, who served permanently in the corps to which they were appointed. The Spanish war having brought out the grave evils which resulted from this permanent divorce of the men who did the fighting and those who kept them supplied, Congress decreed that after February 2, 1901, officers should be transferred to the staff for four years only, and should then return to duty with troops for at least two years, in order to prevent their becoming mere bureau officers without experience of the needs of soldiers. In the period that has elapsed, the new system has been an unqualified success in the Adjutant-General's Department and in the Inspector-General's, and, so far as the army is concerned, in the Quartermaster's and Commissary Departments.

Yet the present head of the Pay Department, the Commissary-General, and the Chief Signal Officer, who have grown gray under the old system, have recently condemned the workings of the four-year details. The Paymaster-General, for instance, finds great difficulty in getting the line officers, of which he has six, to conform to the requirements of his bureau. The chiefs of the other bureaus have not as yet made their complaints specific, but are content to advertise their belief that, before the first four-year detail period is over, "the demonstration of the failure of the system will be conclusive." There can be no doubt that in their minds the wish is father to the thought. The staff and line transfer act dealt a fatal blow to the prestige of the staff, previously the all-important part of the army. As the permanent officers go on the retired list, the disappearance of the staff prestige is very marked, and with it goes that considerable political power which was the ruling influence in army politics until the incumbency of Secretary Root.

It may well be that Paymaster-General Bates's six line officers have had some difficulty in mastering the intricate and often old-fashioned methods for which the Pay Department has long been famous. But, even so, it cannot affect the reform at issue, which has unquestionably worked well in the other departments. It will take a much longer period than two years, and the failure of more than six officers, to impugn the admirable principle which underlies the new system. And if it should really be impossible to simplify the pay methods so as to bring them within the comprehension of the average officer, it would still be feasible to instruct line candidates at Washington, West Point, or a post-graduate school, before turning them over to the complexities of Gen. Bates's red tape.

A more serious consideration is the fact that there seems to be some difficulty in getting officers to accept staff positions. Before the war with Spain, there were hundreds of candidates for every staff position; at present the chances of active service in the line are more attractive. The Ordnance Corps, for instance, needs sixteen lieutenants, and the Signal Corps eleven. But the latter's needs have only just become known, and vacancies in the Quartermaster's Department, the Commissary-General's, the Adjutant-General's, and the Inspector-General's do not go begging. The trouble with the Ordnance Corps is that the work is so extremely technical that by no means every graduate of West Point is fitted for it. Moreover, nine-tenths of the lieutenants of the line are untrained civilians or former volunteers without even a comprehensive knowledge of purely military duties. This was well illustrated by the failure of half the student officers at Fort Leavenworth in their recent mid-year examinations. Every ambitious lieutenant is just at present bent on developing into a line officer, and few have time to give any thought to preparation for more technical work. But these are conditions growing out of the enlargement and reorganization of the army which are certain to pass away, thanks to Secretary Root's barrack and service schools. And as they disappear, the Secretary's wisdom in bringing about the staff and line transfer will be more and more evident.

The discussion, however, has brought out again the need of further staff legislation. The preposterous state of affairs still obtains by which the quartermaster supplies the table at which the soldier eats, the commissary the food which he eats, the ordnance officer the utensils he uses, while the paymaster gives him his clothing allowances. Until this can be done away with, Secretary Root's reforms will not be complete. Last year he introduced a bill consolidating the supply departments into one bureau known as the Quartermaster's Department, subdivided into a supply and construction division, a commissary division, a finance division, and a transportation division. The plan was by no means a perfect one, yet it represented a vast advance over present conditions, under which, as was illustrated every day during the Spanish war, the heads of departments carry on their business without the slightest information as to what is being done in the adjoining offices. The bill was held up, largely by staff influence, and was not pushed during the session just ended because of other important legislation. It is safe to say that Secretary Root will return to the subject with, it is to be hoped, an even more drastic consolidation measure. The only proper system is the navy's, in which the paymasters do all the work of the army quartermasters, commissaries, pay officers, and part of that of the Ordnance Corps.

### *"RACE SUICIDE" IN FRANCE.*

The declining birth-rate, which is now attracting attention here in the case of our educated classes, is in France a much more portentous phenomenon. During some recent periods the annual increase of population has been as small as 35,000. For the last fifty years of the last century the total increase in France was 3,340,000; in Italy it was 8,833,000, in Austria-Hungary and in Great Britain over 14,000,000, and in Germany nearly 21,000,000. In 1900 the deaths in France exceeded the births by 20,330. In Germany the births exceeded the deaths by 795,000; as Moltke said, in this way Germany wins every year a great battle. Were it not for immigration, there would be every year fewer inhabitants in France; there are every

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year fewer Frenchmen. There is no excessive mortality; the death-rate, both among adults and among infants, compares favorably with that of other nations. Nor is the marriage-rate, although declining, much below that of neighboring countries. The decrease in population is due simply to the fact that marriages are not fruitful. In one-sixth of the families there are no children; in one-quarter there is but one; in one-fifth there are but two; the average for all is but three.

Is France overpeopled? It has less than 72 inhabitants per square kilometre, while Austria has 78, Germany 98, Italy 110, England 120, and Belgium 206. The price of wheat has fallen regularly for thirty years, so that we cannot regard famine as a cause of depopulation. On the other hand, we cannot accept the theory of M. J. Bertillon, who contends that prosperity changes "prolétaires" into "propriétaires"; for prosperity is greater elsewhere than in France. It may be a cause, but it cannot be the chief cause in France. Neither the poverty of the poor nor the wealth of the rich is a sufficient explanation.

But the reason is not far to seek. M. Henry Clément, in a recent number of the *Réforme Sociale*, shows us clearly enough where to look. In spite of many admirable and beautiful features, French civilization is seriously defective. Considering the paucity of births, we might expect that the lives of young men would be held sacred, but they are sent off to die of malaria in Tonquin and Madagascar. Since more people are wanted in France (where every Frenchman wishes to live and die), nothing could be more imbecile than to pour out treasure in maintaining worthless colonies—colonies which are really ulcers on the body politic. In its international relations, France is absolutely secure. It has no jealous neighbors; all they ask of France is to be let alone. But, in the face of a yearly deficit, with a debt of more than seven—according to some estimates more than eight—billions of dollars, the rulers of France continue to force the peasants into the barracks and to squander their savings in military and naval preparations.

When the average tax per head amounts to 130 francs, when the deposits in the savings banks are falling off and the value of property is declining, there is certainly some excuse for men who hesitate to bring children into the world. If these are many, they must sink to a lower station in society than that of their parents—a possibility which even in this country causes parental shuddering. But the great cause, the permanent and constant cause, as M. Clément shows, is the law regulating the devolution of property. The reformers of 1793 were so eager to break up the great estates of the nobility that they shattered the small holdings of the peasants. As Sir Henry Maine said, they created a system of petty entails, and rendered it impossible to keep property together except when there was but one heir. They destroyed primogeniture and established soligeniture (if the word may be allowed). To compel the partition of all property, real and personal, great and small, at the death of the owner, is obviously in many cases ruinous; and when the property is small and those who succeed to it many, the succession taxes and legal expenses amount to confiscation. Of course, the rural population suffers the most, for actual partition can be generally enforced, and the unity of small holdings is thus destroyed. Where there is but one child, the home may be preserved; when there are several, it is torn to pieces. The evils of this system have been often explained. Edmond About described the situation long ago:

> "The father establishes an industry and dies; everything is sold and partitioned; the house does not survive its master. A son has courage and talent; with his fraction of the paternal capital he founds another house, succeeds, becomes well off, and dies. Another partition, another destruction; everything has to be begun again at fresh expense. Agriculture suffers from this, commerce suffers, common sense blushes at it."

Such a condition is not to be improved by the absurd devices of imposing fines on bachelors and on childless married men; nor is the expedient of paying bounties to large families deserving of attention. Such measures do not go to the root of the matter. Nothing will avail except a reduction of the discouragements to the accumulation of property, and of the restraints on the right of distribution. When Frenchmen can feel that their savings will go to their children, and not be wasted by their Government; and when the right of testamentary disposition is restored, the size of French families will increase. So long as the Government lays a heavy fine on children who are bereaved of their parents, it need not expect that its subjects will multiply. If men are heavily taxed on their earnings and savings, and forbidden to divide them according to their judgment, they will prefer to spend them while they live rather than struggle to provide for posterity. This truth appears plainly enough in France; but it is in the way of being illustrated in the experience of other countries.

## SUB-VESUVIAN TOPICS.

POMPEII, March 12, 1903.

Old Luigi has occupied week by week for twenty-two years his little sentry-box on the topmost point of the highest heap of ashes and scoriæ that the excavators have cast up out of Pompeii to the northward. There he sits, and smokes in peace his diminutive pipe of execrable but not cheap tobacco. While the other guards are hurrying through the gaping ruins below him successive groups of drooping travellers, apparently just come from the building of Babel, old Luigi's only duty is to keep a weather eye open for the unduly inquisitive stranger who may want to make his way into the forbidden area of the excavations still in progress, or for the more pertinacious native who advances a hundred plausible reasons for similar transgression from the beaten paths of the adjacent vineyards and orchards. For the troublesome native, Luigi has short words and but scant courtesy. Toward the ignorant foreigner he is more affably disposed, and a pipeful of imported tobacco and a few friendly words open both his heart and his lips.

Luigi has a magnificent view from his high perch. Behind him is the lord of the landscape, Vesuvius. He has been wrapped for an hour in a private mantle of cloud, and that has just lifted to show his great gray shoulders white with unaccustomed snow. Luigi says it will be a hard afternoon for the travellers at the summit. Immediately in front are the roofless, ashen walls of the ruins of the ancient city, sloping down to the very edge of that prehistoric lava-stream that marks the earlier and greater rage of the monarch who visited sudden destruction upon the people that ventured to build upon the skirts of his trailing robe. Beyond, stretches the almost level plain of the Sarno, laid out in rectangular garden patches all the way across toward the rugged, towering heights of Monte Sant' Angelo now capped with the late snows of departing winter. In a sheltered nook half-way up the steep, nestle behind the frowning outpost of a ruined castle the pink and yellow and white houses of the little village of Lettere, whence, just 1,350 years ago, the last king of the Goths marched down to meet defeat at the hands of Narses in the plain below. Further to the left one can just make out the castle of Nocera, where Helena, Manfred's widow, wept her life away in captivity after the lamentable slaughter at Beneventum. At the right, beyond the clustered buildings of Castellamare, the blue Mediterranean glitters out to the twin heights of Capri and the massive dome of Ischia.

Old Luigi lives with his wife and little granddaughter in a single room at Torre Annunziata. "But, Signore," he explains, "it is a very large room, with most elegant furniture, and a truly beautiful kitchen with a stove after the French style. You put in the charcoal, and open a draft, and apply the match, and *ecco!*" And Luigi stretches out both hands wide apart with upturned palms, and lifts shoulders and eyebrows with a smile of illuminating joyousness. "And the grand balcony opens out upon a view incomparable! And about it are set pots of flowers, and in the summer one has the shade of a muscat-vine from which one may pick grapes! And as for the air, figure to yourself! It is veritably a miracle!" For all this luxury Luigi pays a rental of only eight lire a month, and every month he gets from the Government one hundred and twenty lire for his work as *custode* in Pompeii, and from travellers a good sum in addition as gratuities. Eighteen years hence, when he has served forty years, he can retire on full salary. It is, as he says, a good post.

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Luigi has, like so many Italians, an artist's eye. But he busies himself not merely with watching the familiar and ever beautiful panorama before him. He meditates, as he sits up there alone, on the serious things of life. One cannot survey Pompeii for twenty-two long years and still think only of the day. "Does it not appear to you, Signore," he asked suddenly the other morning, "that these men of Pompeii were much like the men of the world today—and indeed that all men, all over the world, are made mostly of the same meat? And that is why they are trying in these days to make wars cease? Of a truth, what do wars mean to our poor people? They mean just the pouring of so much blood, and the spending of so many *quattrini*, and all just on account of the caprices of the great. They make their advantage out of it, but the poor people suffer. There was our affair in Massowah—just the caprice of that Sicilian! ["Crispi?" I inquired. "Già."] He said England had done some great things in Africa, and Germany had done some great things in Africa, and now we must. But what happened? Just more blood and more money to be spent. And all because Crispi saw the way to put money in his sack." "But," I ventured timidly, "perhaps Crispi really believed that it would be a good business venture for Italy." "No, no," he retorted (and here, in his eagerness, he dropped out of his polite Italian into dialect), "don't you believe it! It was to feather his own nest. Everybody knows it. Look at him! What was he? Just a commonplace poor lawyer, without a soldo to his name. So he turns to politics for a living, and finally gets himself elected a Deputy to Parliament. And then he manages the trick, and becomes a Minister, and then the head of the Ministry. And then he brings on a war, and fills his own pockets, and goes home rich! *Ec'!* And he said the poor Africans needed civilizing. [I couldn't help thinking of the Philippines!] What was there there? Nothing but sand! And why not save the blood, and spend the money in schools and in civilizing a little bit the people of Calabria? There they need civilizing more than in Africa! *Ec'!*" And Luigi halted for some meditative puffs.

The condition of the people in Calabria is indeed unspeakable—from all reports quite as bad as in the Middle Ages, if not worse. In almost every point of economic and social progress southern Italy, including the old Bourbon kingdom, stands far behind northern Italy, but Calabria is as far below the province of Naples as hell below purgatory. The Italians themselves shake their heads over it, but apparently the problem is too great for the Government to face. Every one has heard of the notorious southern brigand Musolino, who was finally rounded up. Only yesterday a well-known captain of the Royal Carbineers, who has recently achieved a reputation by detective service against other members of Musolino's band, was testifying on the witness-stand. His precise words are enough to give some notion of the conditions that prevail in parts at least of the interior of Calabria.

"In all my service, in Sicily, in Sardinia, in Calabria itself, I have never seen so wretched a region as this where I have recently been. There are no roads, no means of communication with the outer world, no resources of any kind; nothing but the most debasing poverty. There are human beings who herd with their cattle, in roofless pens, muddy and pestilent. The bread they eat is made of vetches. They never taste meat unless they can manage to steal a bit. The utmost that a workman can earn in a day is forty centesimi (eight cents). Civilization has not yet reached those regions. Life is in its primitive stage, and morality as little developed. When I went to one place on duty I found they had no cemetery at all. The bodies of their dead they wrapped in a sheet and threw into the cellar of an old ruined church—a sort of a fleshpit of rottenness—where the hogs used to go to feed on the corpses. It is a torture for officials to serve in such a region, and it is well known that a brigadier of Royal Carbineers committed suicide because he had been assigned to duty there."

There is indeed much poverty in southern Italy, especially in the towns, but in general nothing like such horrors as have just been mentioned. As in ancient times, people have drifted into the towns, and it is difficult to devise any scheme for settling them elsewhere. In our little neighboring city of Torre Annunziata, for example, there are said to be many hundreds of men (some say thousands) absolutely unable to find a stroke of work to do. And Italy is notoriously a prolific country. Most of these men have large families of small children. "How do they manage to live?" I inquired of a native. "Oh, simply and solely on charity, on the little sums that their children can beg for them. And it is surprising on how small a sum they can manage to subsist." And so southern Italy is raising up a generation of beggars. At present, however, things are improving a trifle. Southern Italy lags about fifty years behind Piedmont and Lombardy, but even here one begins to see more and more the chimneys of factories, unlovely to the eye of the sightseer, but pleasing to that of the philanthropist, and so the problem of work for the unemployed in the towns is gradually being solved.

In the country, the condition of the peasants is relatively better. They are a hard-working class. Men, women, and children of a family work together on their very small holdings of land, and almost all the work appears to be done by hand, with primitive but effective tools, except the carrying of produce to market. Then the sturdy little donkeys and almost equally diminutive horses are pressed into service. Frequently the donkey and the family cow are harnessed together. I have seen no ploughs in use short of the region of the Silarus, in the neighborhood of ancient Pæstum, where the other day yokes of sturdy white cattle were dragging through the rich soil wooden ploughs not very different in shape from those in use two thousand years ago. It was at Pæstum also that I saw, a few years ago, a lofty circular threshing-floor spread with sheaves from which the farmer was beating the grain by driving a yoke of muzzled cattle round and round upon it. And a short distance away his son was winnowing the grain by throwing it up into the air with a big wooden shovel for the wind to blow the chaff away. Other remnants of ancient methods prevail throughout the entire countryside, even here in the Sarno valley. Women still teach their daughters to card and spin with distaff and whirling spindle the threads of cotton, flax, or wool, precisely as their forbears did so many generations ago. And then they are woven at home on a wooden loom of antique pattern but surprising effectiveness into fabrics that appeal for fineness and regularity of texture even to my untutored masculine eye, while they have filled my Penelope with covetous admiration.

This Sarno valley is an unusually favored garden spot, because of the canalization of the river, effected some fifty years ago throughout its lower course, which has made it possible to distribute an abundance of water for purposes of irrigation from canals at three different levels. Thus the whole region is richly watered, and, as in the sandy plains of southwestern America, so here, nothing but water is necessary to make these deep strata of Vesuvian ashes wonderfully fertile. Indeed, a freshly thrown-up heap of débris from excavations will next season produce as fine a crop of potatoes as if it had always been addicted to an agricultural life.

The country people talk much of excavations in search of valuable antiquities, but do little in that direction. The risks are too great. They must work their land intensively in order to live, and a good cabbage patch is a more valuable asset than a precarious chance for treasure-trove, especially, also, as the holdings are so small that any part devoted to excavation would surely be a very considerable proportion of the entire farm. But every peasant appears to cherish a private hope that the Madonna may some day be as good to him as to the Signori who have now and then made more out of chance finds than out of a century of straight farming. Great interest was excited, some few years ago, among peasants as among archæologists, by the lucky discovery made in a cistern of a *villa rustica* in the territory of Bosco Reale, only a mile or so from Pompeii. There was found the skeleton of a man who had taken refuge in that place of fancied security from the fatal shower of ashes. He had with him a lot of gold jewelry, over a thousand gold coins, and a magnificent table service of wrought silver, of more than a hundred pieces. Best of all, to the untutored mind of the peasant, was the success that the discoverer had in bribing the Government inspector, and concealing the knowledge of his find till he could spirit it out of the country. The paternal Government of Italy has a way of granting no permission to excavate for antiquities, even upon one's own land, without demanding a specified share of the finds; and as to the rest, it retains the right to decline to purchase them itself, while forbidding the owner to sell to any other customer. The result is, that the stringent law against the exportation of antiquities is constantly evaded by means of bribery.

The discoverer of the treasure of Bosco Reale enriched himself by disposing thus of his plunder, which now reposes in the Museum of the Louvre. Every landowner in this vicinity would like to emulate his example. Indeed, the last discovery of similar sort is even yet the subject of litigation between the Government and the stubborn owner. A waterside tavern was partly excavated some months ago, close by the road that now runs from Torre Annunziata to Castellamare by the little church of S. Antonio, and not far south of the church. In this inn a considerable number of fugitives from the eruption had taken refuge, and, unable, like the elder Pliny, to find escape by sea, had perished there. Some of them were carrying with them, or wearing, their most valuable possessions—among them a

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man with gold chain, bracelet, and rings, whom an Italian archæologist, Signor Canizzaro, forthwith identified by some mysterious mediumistic process as the elder Pliny himself! Worse than that, he heralded his discovery to the learned world. To say nothing about the simple fact that we are fully and authentically informed by his nephew concerning the circumstances of Pliny's death away the other side of the Sarno, and concerning the rescue of his body the day after the eruption ceased, it was amusing to have Signor Canizzaro identify as Pliny the skeleton of a man all tricked out with jewelry, when Pliny himself in his 'Natural History' satirizes unmercifully the wearing of such trinkets by members of the male sex. But the jewelry is now safely stored away, and further excavations suspended until the owner can have his legal rights in the premises established. Of certain other private excavations in the neighborhood of Bosco Reale it is yet too early to speak.

The sociologist as well as the archæologist finds his interest in this neighborhood at present. There is a most vigorous discussion going on at Naples concerning the "municipalization of bread"—that is, the proposal to establish bakeshops under the management of the municipality for the manufacture and sale of bread, on which the poor chiefly depend for food. Such socialistic experiments are by no means unknown in Italy, though it is in Sicily, at Catania, that the most successful effort of this sort has been carried through. Even though the statement of the prosindaco (acting Mayor) of that city, that the price of bread to the consumer has thus been reduced 30 per cent. and its quality much improved, is somewhat misleading, because certain other elements have contributed to that result, there seems to be no reason to doubt that a substantial gain has been attained in the amelioration of the condition of the poor. At Naples there has recently been a decided reduction in the price of bread, due partly to a reduction of the tax on flour, and partly, perhaps, to the fear among private bakers that high prices might bring about the realization of such municipal competition as they evidently fear. Up to 1902, bread of ordinary quality sold in Naples at 38 centesimi the kilogramme; it is now selling at 32, but it is claimed that this reduction is largely nominal, being balanced by scant weight and adulteration of flour. The friends of the municipalization of bread at Naples urge that the quality can be improved and the price lowered by the intervention of the commune in the business, and that, as bread is one of the chief necessaries of life, the community ought to undertake to furnish it at the cost of production. The opponents of the scheme plead the stock arguments—that private enterprise and competition might better be stimulated than suppressed; that it is doubtful whether the city could produce bread as cheaply or as well as private firms; that opportunity would be opened for all sorts of political jobbery, and the city might wake up to find itself saddled with heavy debt, and so forth. It is curious to notice that not much stress seems to be laid by the opposition upon the argument that the state should not, on general principles, undertake any such business schemes at all. The socialistic principle seems to be pretty generally admitted.

The outcome of the discussion is still uncertain. The municipal Giunta, with the Mayor at its head, presented to the city Council a report that was distinctly unfavorable in tone, though it apparently tried to avoid bitterness of controversy, and the Council has finally ordered the appointment of a special commission to study the subject in all its bearings, and report its findings and recommendations to the Council within two months.

As I write these last words, Vesuvius is firing minute-guns of heavy artillery, and throwing up, hundreds of feet into the air, brilliantly gorgeous Roman-candle-bursts of fire, mixed with white-hot stones that fall far down the mountain side, and glitter against its dark flanks for some time after they have reached their final resting place. I have seldom seen a more imposing spectacle.

E. T. M.

# Correspondence.

## AN OPEN LETTER TO THE PRESIDENT OF THE CARNEGIE INSTITUTION.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY,
March 25, 1903.

DEAR SIR: The interest you showed in certain remarks of mine, encourages me to advocate the establishment of an Academy of Sciences in connection with the Carnegie Foundation. Of course, the word "sciences" is intended in the broadest sense. I mean an academy of natural sciences, philosophy, and letters. Let me say at once that the word "academy" need not appear in the matter at all. I suggest that the Carnegie Foundation shall gather about itself a body of men, distinguished in all forms of learned research, under the collective name, "Members of the Carnegie Institution."

What shall be the function of these men? Obviously, the direct action of such a body is in the main two-fold: to carry on the highest researches, and to advise, guide, and help others to carry on the same.

As regards the first point, even the most distinguished and unswerving investigators will find their hands strengthened by working coöperatively under the direct auspices, and with the financial support, of a great and strong foundation.

As regards the second point, it seems to me to lead towards a crying need of the Foundation. That great scientific plans of almost infinite variety cannot be fathered by such an institution without advice, is too clear to need pointing out. It seems to me hardly less evident that such advice cannot in the long run be asked from and given by private persons in their capacity as experts in a given subject. Publicity, criticism, and final agreement of the best opinions are as essential to the best choice of subjects for learned research as they are for the establishment of laws or the government of public bodies.

Restricting myself to the subjects of which I know most, there are sure to come requests for archæological expeditions, excavations, expensive facsimile reproductions of manuscripts, great critical editions of important texts, publications of learned lexical thesauruses, compilations of exhaustive bibliographies, and other undertakings of a similar sort. *Need I point out that it will be the glorious prerogative of the Carnegie Foundation to forward such undertakings?* And need I point out that it will be a lame and halting method to subject proposals of this sort to the scrutiny of the one or the other scholar, to stand or fall according to his individual, sometimes very personal, sympathies and inclinations? On the other hand, if proposals of this sort are brought before the Members of the Institution, I cannot easily conceive how they may fail to be judged on their just merits.

You are aware that quite recently the leading learned academies of Europe have allied themselves into a single body, in order that larger projects which cannot be carried out by a single member of this body may be dealt with fruitfully by all of them together. I am well informed, and I betray no secret in stating, that this union of European academies looks forward hopefully to the time when it may strengthen itself still further by an alliance with an *endowed* representative American body of this same sort. In one form or another the coöperation of the Carnegie Foundation with the largest and most significant undertakings of the allied academies will be, I venture to say, unavoidable. Or I should rather say, that it will be welcomed by the care-takers of the Carnegie Foundation as one of the best opportunities for fruitful action.

Let me illustrate this by a single concrete case. The united academies have sanctioned the project of a critical edition of the text of the great Hindu Epic, the Mahābhārata—it is a crying need of Indic science. I hope that in any case the Carnegie Institution will not withhold its aid, but such aid will come most effectively, most smoothly, and in justest proportion from the Carnegie Institution as a member of this union. What is more important, the Carnegie Institution will have occasion in its turn to request the coöperation of the European academies for its own plans.

There is at the present time in the University of Upsala, in Sweden, a manuscript on purple parchment, written in silver and golden letters. It is the most priceless manuscript in the world, the silver codex of Upsala, the main source of the Gothic Bible and the Gothic language. I hope to see this manuscript reproduced so that every Germanic seminary and every student of German antiquity may handle a perfect facsimile of the original. I have broached the matter to distinguished Germanic scholars; their response was invariably enthusiastic. The coöperation of the Swedish Academy, and, further, that of the united academies, is indispensable for this project. May we not some day desire in this matter the initiative of the Carnegie Institution as well as its financial support, to the special glory of American scholarship and American enterprise? Again, the smoothest way and the surest warranty of such an achievement lie with the Carnegie Institution as a member of this great federation of science.

Clearly then, the Carnegie Institution is designed to become the logical representative of America in the greater coöperative enterprises of the scientific world: it is in this matter a national representative and a national institution. It is hardly necessary to point out that it is even more a

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national institution in its relation to the scholars and learned institutions of the United States themselves.

Here, I conceive, lies its greatest opportunity. When the Carnegie Institution shall have gathered about itself an organized body of distinguished scholars, it will be in the position to extend its financial aid in the most fruitful way. But, in addition to that and beyond that, it will also have created a body, membership in which will be prized as one of the highest distinctions which an American scholar may reach. Such a body will be a beacon light to guide and cheer onward the successive generations of scholars, so that they may be less tempted to lag by the way, or to be lured from the narrow and steep road that leads to scientific eminence.

This statement implies that the road which the American scholar travels towards the scientific heights is not at the present time too abundantly illumined by such lights. I think that it may be granted that this is so; that the measure of high scientific reward in the career of an American scholar is scanty; that the hope of membership sooner or later in the Carnegie Institution will go far to encourage high effort; and that this ideal reward will promote the highest endeavor, no less than the direct financial subsidies which are the more immediate purposes of the Institution.

I do not believe that there is any insurmountable or even serious difficulty in the way of this plan. The selection, organization, and propagation of the Members of the Carnegie Institution will need to be elaborated with care. The usual human frailties will tack themselves close on to the heels of the very best undertakings; they will not be wanting here. You and your associates will deal with them patiently and wisely. I would make a single definite suggestion as to ways and means: the members of the Institution should be recompensed for their services, either by a modest fixed income, or by regular stipends for their services as members of the Institution and attendants upon its meetings. This will impart to the undertaking an invaluable element of reality and steadiness; it will strengthen the sense of responsibility on the part of the choosers and the chosen.

The suggestion which I have the honor of making to you comes from one whose single aim it has been to be counted an American scholar and investigator. I am reasonably certain that these words voice a desire of the great body of American scholars and investigators.

Very truly yours,

MAURICE BLOOMFIELD.

President DANIEL C. GILMAN, LL.D.

## MONEY AND HUMAN RIGHTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of March 26, referring to Senator Money's speech, you say, in effect, that he does not object to the enlistment of negroes in the army; that he is willing to have the negro fight for a flag that will not protect him. I think that this construction of the Senator's remarks is hardly fair. The *Congressional Record* (vol. 37, p. 146) states that he said: "Individually, I did and do object to any negro being in the army of the United States," which seems quite explicit.

I am, sir, most sincerely yours,

JOHANN HEILIG.

CHICAGO, March 3, 1903.

[*Summa injuria, summum jus.* We wrote in dependence on the Associated Press dispatch, which stated that the speaker said he "had no particular objection" to the enlistment of negroes. As reported in the *Record*, his reply to Senator Foraker's inquiry began thus: "I do not know that I ever heard any objection to a negro enlisting in the army, but there would be objection to his serving as an officer." And the passage cited by our correspondent is continued in these terms: "I think, in other words, Mr. President, that this is a white man's country and a white man's government. It was established by white men for white men. It was carved out of the wilderness and conquered from the Indians, not for the African, but for the white man." This is not new Southern doctrine, but, as the colored (not African, but American) population is now at its height in millions, so wholesale a reading of a people out of its birthright was never witnessed in the history of mankind.—ED. NATION.]

## CHAUCER, THE PRIORESS, AND PROFESSOR CHILD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Friends of Chaucer will be interested in the appearance of a new comedy in verse called "The Canterbury Pilgrims," in which (we are told by the publishers) Chaucer is to appear "in the rôle of a lover of the Prioress whose motto *Amor vincit omnia* gave Chaucer opportunity to throw a spice of mischief into the picture he drew of the gentle little lady." It is interesting to find this suspicion of mischief persisting in this way, when it has long been known that Chaucer was describing a purely conventional ornament of the period, such as should have excited no uncharitable comment on the part of any but the most depraved Canterbury pilgrim.

For some of us, however, the matter is worthy of mention because it suggests a trifling but characteristic reminiscence of the late Professor Child, America's most distinguished Chaucer scholar. It is well known that Professor Child's incidental comments on questions of morals and manners formed no small part of the delights of his teaching; and he never hesitated to condemn a fault even in a favorite poet. Many of his pupils must recall his unflinching condemnation of Chaucer himself for the sly defence of plain speaking on the ground that

"Crist spak him-self ful brode in holy writ."

"A most unwarranted reference!" Professor Child would exclaim indignantly. "No defence at all, and quite unworthy of Chaucer." But on the other hand he was as ready to be indignant at those who accused the poet unjustly. In the very last year that he read the Prologue with a class at Harvard, the point was raised that some thought Chaucer meant by the "Amor vincit omnia" to insinuate that the Prioress was not as completely absorbed in heavenly things as was meet for a lady of her profession. The present writer recalls with vividness the look of the venerable teacher as he raised his head energetically from his desk, saying (with evident sincerity, yet by no means without appreciation of the humor of the question): "An outrageous suggestion! Chaucer never would have done such a thing, and there's not the slightest reason for thinking of it." It is pleasant to imagine Professor Child's comment on the imputation in the play which has given excuse for this bit of reminiscence.

R. M. A.

LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY, March 24, 1903.

## PALGRAVE'S GOLDEN TREASURY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "F. M." is in error in asserting that the figures in the "Index of Writers" in the 1898 edition of Palgrave's 'Golden Treasury' have no relation to the book. The numbers which follow each writer's name in this index are the serial numbers given to the poems in the collection. Thus, "ALEXANDER, William (1580-1640), 29," the first entry, refers to the poem numbered in the text XXIX.

But while the book is under discussion, it may not be out of place to refer to certain other pitfalls which it presents, and against which the reader is rarely warned. Many of the titles are of Palgrave's own contrivance, especially those given to songs extracted from plays and to sonnets taken from sonnet sequences. The reader is thus left to believe that Shakspere named his sonnet cix. "The Unchangeable" (p. 11), or that Sidney entitled "Astrophel and Stella," 84, "Via Amoris," (p. 9). Again, some of the pieces are only fragments from larger works, the extreme example being "The Song of David," by Christopher Smart (p. 164), where three stanzas are selected from a poem containing eighty-six. In this case, it is true, a hint is given to the reader in a note at the end of the book. Finally, there are silent changes in the words of the poems themselves. Lodge's poem, "Rosalind's Description," is given on pp. 12-13 with the title "Rosaline," and with several arbitrary changes in the text, which may be discovered by comparison with the same poem as printed in any modern edition of "Rosalind," from the Hunterian Club facsimile to the reprint in Cassell's "National Library," while the one change that is emphatically called for, the substitution of "empyreal" for "imperial" in line 2, indispensable to any understanding of the meaning, happens not to have been made.

The 'Golden Treasury' has become a classic—one would not wish to see it in any way altered from the form which Palgrave has given to it; but would it not be well for some future edition to make perfectly clear to the reader in what relation, apart from modernizations of spelling and punctuation, its texts stand to their originals?

W. STRUNK, JR.

ITHACA, N. Y., March 31, 1903.

## "LIBRARIES" AND THEIR METHODS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I find that I am being used by unscrupulous publishers as a sort of editorial

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abstraction, and I wish publicly to protest.

A few years ago I was asked by the late Charles Dudley Warner to help him on "The Library of the World's Best Literature." I believe that such compilations may be very useful. I did my work there and was paid for it. A little later I was asked by Mr. Walter Jackson to edit another "Library of Literature," which was to be published by Messrs. Merrill & Baker of New York. I laid out a plan combining the topical and chronological arrangement of the selections; this was accepted by the publishers, and the compilation on the lines indicated was carefully and effectively made, mainly by Miss Ticknor and Mr. Forrest Morgan. The title-page assigned credit for "Introductions" by Donald G. Mitchell and Andrew Lang, but those gentlemen had absolutely no editorial direction. We were treated courteously and generously by the publishers; it was a legitimate piece of editorial work, and not to be ashamed of.

Some time afterward an attempt was made to increase the sale of this "Library." I need not go into particulars, for I know nothing of the circumstances or even the promulgators of the scheme. It was announced, however, that Richard Garnett of the British Museum, Léon Vallée of the Bibliothèque Nationale, and Alois Brandl of the German National Library were the sponsors for this new compilation of literature, and Dr. Garnett was credited with having originated the topical-chronological arrangement of the "Library." I immediately wrote to Dr. Garnett, asking him what authority the selling agents had for thus using his name. He wrote me a most courteous reply, entirely disclaiming the unwelcome distinction. Mr. Andrew Lang also repudiated any editorial connnection with the "Library." The new edition so elaborately advertised seems to have been practically the same compilation as that originally published, with possibly the addition of a few illustrations.

I have the honor of being President of "The Bibliophile Society," a private organization consisting of five hundred booklovers. We have published for private distribution among our members a nine-volume edition of the Odes and Epodes of Horace. We have in hand a reprint and partial reproduction of Major André's Diary, which a generous member of the Society, having purchased from Earl Gray at a cost of £1,200, has placed at our disposal. The mercenary commercial spirit is entirely wanting to our Society. There are no yearly dues, and the officers receive no salaries. The publications are offered to the members at cost. They are not even obliged to subscribe. Needless to say, the Society has had and is having remarkable success, as would be recognized if any one saw the list of members.

The publishers of this "International Library" now insolently seized the name of the "Bibliophile Society," and, in order to throw dust in people's eyes, claimed that I was one of their directors! It has caused me no end of trouble. No attention has been paid to my letters of protest, and I find that my only recourse is to apply for an injunction, an expensive protest.

This morning I receive a letter from Dr. Henry P. Bowditch, asking if I approve of the method of securing support for "the latest and most important publication" of "The International Library, Classics and Rare Manuscript Society," which had just been deluging him with circulars. I find that here again I figure among the Board of Editors which instructs the American Secretary, C. T. Brainard of No. 11 East Sixteenth Street, New York, "to secure a few individual testimonials," and offers Dr. Bowditch "a complimentary membership in this society."

As I said before, I am not at all ashamed of the plan which I originated for the compilation of the "International Library" or of its contents. For those who have little time for reading, such compilations are useful and instructive. But I confess to a feeling of indignation at the unauthorized use of my name, as having had any individual or collective part in any scheme for selling this or any other "Library." I belong to no editorial board (although I did last summer serve for a time with Mr. T. B. Aldrich, Dr. Van Dyke, and Dr. Mabie in revising "The Young Folks' Library"), and I sincerely hope that the many persons who have been (as I know to my sorrow) annoyed by the claims of these anonymous agents of the "International Library," will accept this disclaimer as final and conclusive.

NATHAN HASKELL DOLE.

"HEDGECOTE," GLEN ROAD, BOSTON, MASS., April 6, 1903.

## "BLIZZARD," "JAYHAWKER," "UNCLE SAM."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I ask, through your columns, for information in regard to the above terms?

In the *Virginia Literary Museum* of December 16, 1829, will be found the following: "*Blizzard.* 'A violent blow'—perhaps from *Blitz*, [Germ.] lightning. *Kentucky*" (i. 418). In 1834 Davy Crockett wrote: "I started down the edge of the river low grounds, giving out the pursuit of my elks, and hadn't gone hardly any distance at all, before I saw two more bucks, very large fellows, too. I took a blizzard at one of them, and up he tumbled. The other ran off a few jumps and stop'd; and stood there till I had loaded again, and fired at him" ('Narrative,' p. 152). In 1835 Crockett again used the word (in his 'Tour,' p. 16), but in a sense which was misunderstood by Bartlett, and which has proved a puzzle to lexicographers. An examination of the entire passage (too long to give here), and a comparison with the extract just quoted, show that in 1835 the word was employed figuratively as meaning a sort of extinguisher, a "squelcher."

No instance of *blizzard* has been recorded between 1835 and 1880, but the word is said to have appeared in its now familiar sense in a Dakota newspaper in 1867. Prof. Cleveland Abbe calls my attention to the first use of the word in the *Monthly Weather Review* for December, 1876, as follows: "The very severe storms known in local parlance as 'blizzards' were reported on the 8th as prevailing in Iowa and Wisconsin, where temperatures of —15° and —20° prevailed, with violent northwest winds and much drifting snow" (p. 424). It may be added that in the sixties and seventies of the last century what we now call blizzards were on the plains termed *northers*—a word which apparently originated in Texas, where (as applied to a north wind) it is found as early as 1838. I should welcome examples of *blizzard* in any sense previous to 1880.

The noun *Jayhawk* is apparently not recognized in the dictionaries, while the earliest recorded certain example of *Jayhawker* is 1861, and of the verb *Jayhawk*, 1866. The words, however, were used in Kansas as early as November or December, 1858, at which time they were applied to James Montgomery and his men, who, in retaliation for the atrocities committed on Free-State settlers by the "border ruffians," raided the pro-slavery settlers and their abettors from Missouri. Examples of the terms before 1859 are desired. Statements are current as to the existence of the terms in California, Texas, and Australia previous to their appearance in Kansas in 1858; but such statements have yet to be substantiated.

The story connecting our familiar *Uncle Sam* with an obscure citizen of Troy, N. Y., named Samuel Wilson, who died in 1854, was given in 1842 by J. Frost in his 'Book of the Navy' (pp. 297, 298). Frost undoubtedly got the story from some newspaper. As for *Uncle Sam* itself, the term first found its way into a book in 1816, but had already run a career in the papers for three years —from October, 1813. Curiously enough, the sobriquet seems to have been avoided by the "war-hawks," as those who favored the war with England were called by their political opponents. I am anxious to obtain an earlier allusion to the Wilson story than 1842, and examples of *Uncle Sam* before 1814. ALBERT MATTHEWS.

BOSTON, March 28, 1903.

## ORANGE EATING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While all the ways of eating oranges are pleasant, my most favored way is to eat the whole orange except (sometimes) the seeds. In this way the delicious rind, the juices, the pulp combining to make the fruit, are all made food, easily digested, at least by yours truly, G. W. T.

# Notes.

Six of the seven volumes of Mr. J. S. Farmer's dictionary entitled 'Slang and its Analogues' have now been issued, and concurrently with the seventh will be issued a revision of volume one, which the editor frankly pronounces inferior to the subsequent volumes. This is not obligatory on subscribers to the entire work. Mr. Farmer's address is No. 18 Bury Street, London, W. C.

We read in the current Proceedings of the New England Historic Genealogical Society of Boston that Mr. J. Henry Lea, who is in a sense Mr. H. F. Waters's successor abroad, is preparing for publication through the Society a volume of abstracts of the wills that are registered in the Prerogative Court of Canterbury. It begins with 1620. The Society has been urged to petition Congress to print, for the sake of the genealogical details involved, the identifying papers of the Revolutionary pensioners.

Fred Lewis Pattee is editing for the

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Princeton Historical Association, in a limited edition of 1,250 copies, 'The Poems of Philip Freneau, Poet of the American Revolution,' in three volumes; the first now ready, and to be had at the University Library. There has been no collection made since Duyckinck's in 1865, and that was not exhaustive. Mr. Pattee essays a chronological arrangement, which "is virtually an autobiography, and furnishes a commentary upon the history of a highly important era." Some of the matter is inedited.

Longmans, Green, & Co., in connection with George Allen, London, will shortly begin the issue of Ruskin's Works in 32 volumes, not to be had singly, and limited to 2,000 copies for Great Britain and America, printed from type. Paper and letterpress will be of the first quality. The rate of publication will be monthly. Much unpublished MS., including letters, will be incorporated in the text, which will be edited, with introductions, by Mr. E. T. Cook, in collaboration with Mr. Wedderburn, one of Ruskin's literary executors.

Charles Scribner's Sons will bring out directly Henri Cordier's revision of Yule's translation of 'The Book of Sir Marco Polo,' in the light of recent discoveries.

'Two Centuries of American Costume in America,' by Mrs. Alice Morse Earle, is in the press of Macmillan Co.

G. P. Putnam's Sons are about to publish 'The South American Republics,' by Thomas C. Davidson; 'Danish Life,' by J. Brochner; and 'Divinity and Man,' by W. K. Roberts.

Thomas Whittaker will have the American market for a new work on the history of the Nonjurors, by Canon Overton of Lincoln.

A. Wessels Co. announce 'A History and Description of English Porcelain,' by William Burton, and 'The Riviera,' by Hugh Macmillan.

A. E. Gallatin's monograph on Aubrey Beardsley will appear directly through Godfrey A. S. Wieners, New York. Two portraits and examples of the artist's work will accompany a catalogue of it and a bibliography of Beardsley criticism.

McClure, Phillips & Co. have nearly ready 'Deep Sea Vagabonds,' by Albert Sonnichsen.

In a time of haste it is half-refreshing to witness deliberation even in the reprint of a classic. Sir Arthur Helps's 'Spanish Conquest in America,' introduced and annotated by M. Oppenheim, and published by John Lane, began to appear in 1900; the second volume bore date of 1902, and now we have the third, with one more to come. So the original appeared in 1855, 1857, 1861. The editor's part, though unpedantic as respects the notes, has been painstaking and scholarly, but the conspicuous enrichment of the work has been in the maps superadded to those of Helps. In the present volume these number seven, two from Wytfliet (1597), one of the Ptolemy of 1562, one from Lorenzana's 'Historia de Nueva España' (1541), etc. At the front is a facsimile of Herman Moll's North America, 1710-12, in which the peninsula of Lower California shows as an island. The letterpress of this edition, though compact, is clear, and the enterprise is in all ways justified.

There is no reason, except usage, why the English Bible should not be reproduced and labelled among the admirable "Tudor Translations" of David Nutt. Few know that of the Authorized Version of 1611 there were two editions showing very extensive variations, one of the least of which has been made a sign of bibliographic distinction. In the last line of Ruth iii., 15, "he went into the city" reads one of the black-letter folios; and "she went," etc., the other and presumably later impression. Mr. Nutt has chosen for his series the "He Bible," and has shown a commendable independence in the reprint. The division into verses has been abandoned in favor of rational paragraphing without numbers; poetry is given in verse type; the chapter headings are transferred to the margin, whose original references are dropped, while its English renderings of Hebrew names are relegated to footnotes; interpolated words are not distinguished by italic type. The old orthography is retained. This is a laudable reconciliation of antiquarianism with modern needs and convenience. Volume one ends with Joshua.

A year ago we made mention of the 'Letters of Mlle. de Lespinasse' in Miss Wormeley's translation for the Versailles Historical Series of Hardy, Pratt & Co., Boston. These publishers, taking advantage of Mrs. Humphry Ward's exploiting the Letters for her latest novel, have just brought them out afresh in a thin volume of 342 pages. The reflected interest is thus likely to give them a far wider audience than they appealed to in more expensive dress.

An entertaining and not unprofitable book is 'The Witchery of Sleep' (New York: Ostermoor & Co.), in which Willard Moyer has collected an anthology of his subject, together with a discussion of his own. He is especially enthusiastic on the importance of a certain kind of mattress. His disproportionate zeal on this point appears strange until one notes the name of the publishers. The illustrations of famous beds and sleeping places deserve commendation. In addition to the poetical extracts from eminent authors, the volume includes "A Symposium of Sleep," being "a collection of sleep thoughts and expressions especially contributed." Mr. Chauncey M. Depew declares that "the man who can have a natural slumber every night the year round, of eight hours, can move the world." The opinion of George H. Daniels, chronicled in the margin as "N. Y. C. R. R. views," is: "Sleep, next to waking, I think the most wonderful thing in life." The absence of any testimonial to sleep from the Pullman Car Company indicates an unpardonable ingratitude.

Mr. John Bigelow's 'The Mystery of Sleep' (Harper & Bros.) is a book of a very different class. The second edition, now issued, is a revision and expansion of a publication of 1896 to such an extent as to make practically a new book of it. The writer's object is to expose some "popular delusions," including the belief that sleep is at most a periodical provision for the reparation of physical waste. He maintains that it is rather a suspension of our consciousness, temporarily interrupting our relations with the phenomenal world, and sheltering us from its distractions and fascinations, so that spiritual growth and development may be possible. His position is fairly expressed by the motto he takes from Iamblichus: "The night-time of the body is the daytime of the soul." Mr. Bigelow's arguments will not appeal to most readers as convincing, as far as his main thesis is concerned, but there is much in them to provoke wholesome thought. His remarks on the connection between sleep and the loss of mental balance will also repay attention.

Many an educational moral may be pointed from the 'Republic' of Plato, and no theory of primary education can afford to ignore it. In his 'Theory of Education in Plato's Republic' (Macmillan), Mr. J. E. Adamson, principal of the Normal School, Pretoria, makes a somewhat close application of Plato's theories to the aims and methods of primary and secondary education. The difficulty of gauging the value of Plato's educational curriculum for present needs arises chiefly from the fact that Plato never envisaged an educational process that should cease in the early twenties and be crowned with the final sanction of a degree certificate. For him the whole of life was an education, to be adjusted and pursued on certain principles that to us seem narrow enough because we are even farther from his Utopia than were the Athenians themselves. Mr. Adamson could add nothing in the way of illustration and exposition to Nettleship's essay on this subject in 'Hellenica,' which is frequently quoted in this little volume, though the more detailed commentary in Nettleship's 'Lectures' is not mentioned. Mr. Adamson's effort "to show how Platonic ideas may illuminate modern educational problems" is intended for primary and secondary school teachers, and fulfils its purpose well enough. In tracing the "thought-ancestry" of Plato, he should have mentioned the influence of Heraclitus, which, though it was by way of reaction, is undoubted.

Whether the reader of 'Lettering in Ornament: An Enquiry into the Decorative Use of Lettering, Past, Present, and Possible,' by Lewis F. Day (London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Scribners), cares for "lettering" or not, will be largely a matter of his personal needs in the past, as well as of his personal predilections. The probabilities are that this book will be used chiefly by the engravers and the architects' draughtsmen, and, indeed, that it is meant for them. It deals with European letters only, with "The Printed Page" in one chapter and with "The Written Page" in another; with monumental inscriptions, with conjoined letters, with monograms and cyphers; and in this way covers a very large part of the field of inquiry. Moreover, it appears that the author is in sympathy with the more delicate aspects of his subject, and speaks with a real enthusiasm of the charm of variety and of unexpectedness in the design possible to the utilitarian arrangement of letters. There are a great many illustrations in this book, some of them recording admirable pieces of old work; and not mere rows of letters, either, but pieces of architecture, majolica plates, jewels and implements, panels of carved wood, key-bows, painted tiles, any decorative art with which letters are skilfully combined; and some of those wonderful, engraved plates of the sixteenth century with the twining and interlaced scrolls such as were invented by Hans Sebald Beham and Israel Van Meckenen.

Professor de Sumichrast's translation of Théophile Gautier is now complete with four concluding volumes, of which the most

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important contain the celebrated essays on Hugo and Baudelaire, and a version of 'Émaux et Camées,' by Mrs Agnes Lee. This last task, much the most trying in the whole work, it would be unfair to judge by any other test than that admitted by the translator, whose design is merely that of a fairly literal but occasionally free rendering, without any serious attempt at reproducing the facet-like glitter of Gautier's inimitable line. Of the editorial essays we may note the introduction to 'Jack and Jill' (Jean et Jeannette), which contains an interesting comparative study of the two comedies of Marivaux and Goldsmith that furnished the substance of the later tale.

That useful series, "Monographs on Artists" (Lemcke & Buechner), reaches its seventh number with J. Lohse's translation of Adolf Rosenberg's 'Leonardo da Vinci.' Like its predecessors, this is an admirable collection of illustrative material (127 prints) at a low price. It would have conduced to the reader's comfort if the numerous paintings and drawings erroneously or doubtfully attributed to Leonardo gave some indication of the fact in the explanatory note. This policy was the rather to have been followed in the present work because the English version is so unidiomatic as to be almost unreadable.

'A Woman's Hardy Garden,' by Helena Rutherfurd Ely (Macmillan), gives an exceedingly interesting account of a garden about seventy miles from New York city. The management of it, the selection of the plants, and their arrangement are all dwelt upon with sufficient fulness to make the little work a safe guide for amateurs. The photographic illustrations are charming, and possess great value from the unusual fact that they are dated as to the month and day. Throughout the book there are proofs that this garden-keeper has a mind of her own, and, for the most part, her preferences are based on sound sense and good taste. The volume is readable and instructive.

The 'History of Pre-Clusian Botany in its relation to Aster,' by Edward Sandford Burgess (New York: Torrey Botanical Club), is an exhaustive compilation of the innumerable references to the plants of the genus Aster from 400 B. C. down, two thousand years, to the time of Clusius, 1601. Professor Burgess appears to have examined conscientiously the references and descriptions of these interesting plants, noting especially what has been said as to their differential characters and their possible uses. In a study of variation, this compilation, if, as we believe, it is trustworthy, will be of value as indicating recorded changes in the plants. Owing to the fact that the older descriptions are, for the most part, crude and insufficient, the utmost discrimination must be exercised in utilizing such material. By the eye of a master, like Darwin, who could find golden grains even in the chaff of the most ephemeral newspapers, it is likely that the course of changes may be discerned in such a compilation as this. Professor Burgess has apparently done his work with care throughout.

'L'Inde d'aujourd'hui: Étude Sociale,' by Albert Métin (Paris: Armand Colin), if not the *ouvrage remarquable* of the publishers' enclosed advertisement, is at least a conscientious study of life in India in its artistic, social, and political aspects. As the instructions given by the "fondateur des bourses" lay most weight on the latter factors, it is to be regretted that so large a part of the volume should be taken up with the description of well-known monuments and the iteration of oft-repeated facts and ideas. In truth, the first half of the book might have been written without leaving Paris save for an occasional personal reflection on spectacles often noticed by other travellers. Chapters six to nine (the last) contain, however, much that is good, a student's well-weighed observations on the English administration, the native Opposition, the cost of living, and the condition of industries, with reliable statistics. Criticism of the administration is not spared, but the Opposition is not lauded as a band of disinterested patriots. Here and there an item is already rendered doubtful by later statistics. If we are not mistaken, the railways, said on page 211 to cost more than they earn, are now reported to be making more revenue. The fact that *l'Angleterre impérialiste* spends more than it gives, and cares less for India than when it was *l'Angleterre pacifique*, is well brought out; but M. Métin should not have allowed himself the pleasantry of repeating such nonsense as that on page 243, the idle slander of malcontent Bombay, to the effect that a town's taxes are raised when it sends a delegate to the Congress of Liberals. Owing to the increase in prison industries it has become native slang to say that a prisoner is *un homme aux tapis* (the original is not given). But the child labor in the carpet industries that have to contend with this prison labor! According to M. Métin all laws of inspection are a dead letter; English and Hindu alike regard them as a farce as applied to women and children, and valid only as applied to the merchandise. A child of six, toiling all day, scarcely earns six cents. But when her money is needed for Africa, starving India must work.

The cumulative Quarterly Bibliography of Books Reviewed in Leading American Periodicals, which is edited by George Flavel Danforth, librarian of Indiana University (Bloomington: Index Publishing Co.), completed its first volume last year, an octavo of 207 pages, in very open typography. Speaking for the *Nation*, which is on the list, we can say that it is more minutely indexed than is customary with similar enterprises. The publisher's name and the price of the book are commonly subjoined to the reference to the review.

The Bostonian Society's Proceedings at the annual meeting contains the President's address on the antiquities of the city, and a biographical notice of John Read, a distinguished lawyer and citizen of Boston in provincial days, which throws light on the life of the early part of the eighteenth century. We mention also an excellent copy of Paul Revere's famous hand-colored engraving of the Boston Massacre.

Mr. W. I. Fletcher's Summer School of Library Economy will hold its thirteenth annual session of six weeks at Amherst, Mass., from July 6 to August 14. Courses in French will also be available.

A correspondent writes to us: "In connection with the recent discussion as to the advisability of accepting gifts from donors whose wealth is ill-gotten, the following passage, taken from Miss Garnett's 'Women of Turkey' (vol. 2, page 226), will be possibly found of some interest":

"In a codicil to her will, Khamko [mother of Ali Pasha] directed that a *hadji*, or pilgrim, should be dispatched on her part to lay offerings on the tomb of the Prophet, and pray there for the repose of her soul. Such pilgrimages and offerings may, however, only be made when the expenses are defrayed with money lawfully and honestly acquired. And as it was found on inquiry into the estate of the late Veli Bey, Ali's ancestor, that the property to be sold for this purpose had been taken by force or fraud from a Christian, the pilgrimage was disallowed by the religious authorities."

—In the April *Harper's*, Professor Ely continues his researches among the abnormal developments of American economics and sociology with a study of the economic aspects of Mormonism. Their well-known industrial success he attributes largely to the Mormons' faith in their religious tenets, though he gives us to understand that their industrial superiority has been somewhat overrated. Their proselytes are not generally among the most vigorous and enterprising classes, and, were it not for their docility in following superior leadership, they would make but sorry work of it. In the work of irrigation for agricultural purposes he pronounces Greeley, Colorado, superior to anything found in Mormon territory. On the religious side he declares them strong in faith, but decidedly weak in spirituality, a combination which indicates low ideals and backward development. He makes the interesting suggestion that the growth of a desire for stylish living is in itself a strong curb upon the spread of polygamous marriage, since few men can stand the expense of plural marriage under such conditions. Brander Matthews writes again of Briticisms, which he defines as words, phrases, or usages generally accepted in the British Isles, or even throughout the British Empire, but not adopted in the United States. The definition may pass if the words "generally accepted" be not pressed too closely. Among various terms which he cites as sporadic British innovations are a few which may be met at home. There is nothing peculiarly British in the London *Chronicle's* assertion that Sir Martin Conway successfully *negotiated* a perilous pass in his explorations, for American college boys have been *negotiating* perilous curves in baseball and troublesome crises in similar lines of effort for some years past. Mr. Matthews will also find the term *historicity* familiar to many of his American readers in the same sense in which he quotes it from the London *Times*.

—In the April *Atlantic*, Charles A. Conant combats vigorously the popular conception that operations on stock and produce exchanges are simply forms of gambling. The function of such exchanges in securing mobility and divisibility of capital is clearly set forth, as well as the advantage to the investor in being able to know, from the quotations of the exchange, just what is the average opinion of large numbers of experienced men as to the value of any listed security at any given time. It is also shown that the existence of a large mass of salable securities tends to prevent panics in the money market, or at least to minimize their violence. Mr. Conant makes a convincing defence of the exchange system, though he perhaps minimizes the abuses to which he admits that it is liable. The num-

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ber is particularly strong in its literary interest. Mr. Trowbridge continues the story of his life, dealing largely with Emerson and Alcott; Frederick W. Holls contributes a dozen letters from the Emerson-Grimm correspondence; Brander Matthews writes of the Makers of the Drama of To-day, and Alexander V. G. Allen presents a warm-hearted, though not undiscriminating, appreciation of the late Horace E. Scudder. It will be a distinct revelation to most readers, for Mr. Scudder was not the man to allow modern methods of advertising to be applied to himself or his achievements. Professor Matthews is distinctly optimistic in his consideration of the drama. We pass over into the new century, he thinks, with clear evidences of dramatic reinvigoration everywhere except possibly in France, and even France has playwrights of promise. To Norway, however, Ibsen carries the palm for actual achievement; other countries are simply advancing hopefully on the right road. The fertilizing principle at the bottom of this new dramatic growth Mr. Matthews finds in the great development of prose fiction during the past century.

—Mr. G. F. Hill of the British Museum has arranged and edited a useful compilation called 'Illustrations of School Classics' (Macmillan), most of the pictures and maps in which have appeared scattered through the volumes of "Elementary Classics," issued by the same publishers. To them he has added brief descriptions, as well as a good bibliography, in which teachers and students are told where to find the originals, with still fuller accounts of them. The aim of this book is to do for school classics in general (that is, for the classics read in English schools, a far larger list than that of which American schools can boast) what has already been done for Homer in particular by the album of Engelmann and Anderson. These illustrations, now that they are seen together, instead of in their former scattered form, turn out to be a very careful selection, and they ought to add much by way of inspiration and living interest to the texts and commentaries over which boys and girls are set to pore. While we still find among them some of the outline cuts of the style commonly used in American school editions, yet many are reproduced by photography (and some in color), a form which does far greater justice to the originals, and offers less of a temptation to the ever-ready pencil of our young barbarians. The descriptions in the letterpress are in general thoroughly accurate and trustworthy, but we have been surprised to find a curious theory advanced in that of the picture of the last day of Laocoön, taken from the Codex Vaticanus of Virgil (the illustrations from which, by the way, are in this book photographed from the recent papal facsimile, instead of from the old and unreliable engravings still reproduced in our school editions of the Aeneid). Here Mr. Hill suggests that as the name "Laocoön" did not appear over the head of the sacrificing priest "in a reproduction of this picture published in 1835," it may be a recent addition in the MS. A little searching in the Museum Library would have shown him that it appears in Bartoli-Bottari (1741) and in D'Agincourt (1823). The "Edition of 1835" is, no doubt, that of Cardinal Mai, and for faithfulness it by no means deserves what the Cardinal claimed for it. Perhaps he left out the word because he did not understand that in this one picture (as so often in ancient and in mediæval art) we have two scenes in the life of the same man; the first being his sacrifice of the bull, and the second the fatal attack made upon him by the serpents. This, at least, would be our explanation of the double occurrence of the name, although Dr. Nohlac believes that it was erroneously inserted in the first case, but, of course, not "recently."

—Apropos of Gen. Chaffee's remark, before the Methodists in New York, that he had met no intelligent Chinese who desired Christianity in the empire, and the discussion of "Christophobia," it does not seem to be generally known what the official attitude of the Chinese Government really is, and always has been, toward any foreign religion. So long as alien cults are confined to poor and obscure converts, China may be indifferent or even liberal, but in case of any growth which means power, it is far different. China has a definite state religion. It hardly admits of a doubt that Confucianism, which stands above all else for order, and has been the fundamental law of China for twenty centuries, is intolerant. China has never yet officially granted religious liberty in the public schools or examinations, or to men in official positions. As matter of history, the Chinese Government has often persecuted Buddhistic and Taoist sects, under the suspicion that their aim was dangerous to the principle of authority, and thus to the welfare of the state and society. Mohammedanism has held its ground only after bloody contests. The full story of the official persecution, and what might be called the Inquisition, in China, is one which some Western scholar should investigate and set forth. It is a curious fact that, after the outbreak of a sort of Populism in the eleventh century, and the entire reëxamination and restatement of Confucianism by Chu Hi, in the twelfth century, the new creed, or philosophical Confucianism, which has for over seven hundred years furnished the opinions of most cultivated men in the eastern half of Asia, became increasingly intolerant. In its tremendous reaction against the liberality and freedom of the Mongols, it reached the point of bigotry. In Japan, after the fall of the Ming dynasty, Confucianism, under the influence of the Chinese refugee scholars, became the official religion of Yedo, and was made the special engine of Government in keeping out all foreign creeds, cults, and science. It was directly responsible for the imprisonment, torture, and death of not a few natives who, through Dutch learning or otherwise, sought to change the moulds of social or political Japan.

—The truth is clearly brought out in an essay in English by Professor De Groot of Leyden University, published last year in the Report of the Oriental Seminary at Berlin, on the question "Is There Religious Liberty in China?" The famous author of the standard work in Dutch on the Religious Systems of China, a lifelong student of the official religion in China, is easily the first authority in the world on the subject discussed by him. In his remarkable paper he gives a survey of twenty centuries, showing what is the Chinese law against heresy and sects, naming also the victims of oppression and persecution. He makes Confucius and Mencius responsible for the outbreaks of persecution manifested in Chinese history. But it has been shown that while his facts reveal the true Chinese political point of view, yet the text of Confucius and Mencius, both of whom taught before the special teachings of the sage were incorporated into a policy of government, do not justify persecution. As Dr. Faber correctly translates the passage in the Analects (II., 16), it reads, "To fight strange doctrines is indeed injurious." Mencius said: "If one by force subdues men, they do not submit in heart. Force is not sufficient; but if one by virtue subdues them, they will with joy in their hearts submit, as the seventy disciples submitted to Confucius" (II., 1; III., 2). In order, then, to gain an intelligent idea of the real attitude of the Chinese Government and literati, apart from any sentiment, friendly or hostile, one must know the historical attitude of official religion in China, while the man of culture must discriminate between the true and original Confucianism and that of later centuries. It is almost self-evident that, until full religious liberty is granted, as it is in Japan, by the fundamental law of the land, the animosity between Confucianists and Christians will tend rather to increase than to decrease, possibly even to an outbreak greater than that of 1900. The principle of opposition to Occidental religion, backed, as to the Chinese mind it seems to be, by commercial covetousness and political greed, will always have the sympathy and connivance of high Chinese officers.

—Dr. F. Eulenburg, privat-docent in the University of Leipzig, has published in the *Jahrbücher für Nationalökonomie und Statistik* a lengthy article dealing with the age of the active full professors in the Universities of Germany, as also of the German universities in Austria and Switzerland. It is practically exhaustive, only about 2 per cent. of the complete data being wanting, so that it covers 1,288 professors for the winter term of 1890-91, and 1,429 for the winter term of 1901-02. According to these statistics, the average age of the full university professors at present is 53.4 years, which is two years above what it was a decade ago, when it was 51½ years. The highest average age is found at the ten Prussian universities, where it is 54.5 years, and the lowest average in the three universities of Switzerland, where it is 51.8. It is significant that the smaller universities exhibit a smaller average than the larger; this is explained by the fact that usually men do not gain an entrance into the faculties of the larger until they have been tried and found approved in the smaller. In different departments the average varies considerably. In the case of the 201 theological professors it is 54.2; of the 226 law professors, 54.2; of the 295 medical professors, 54.8; of the 707 men in the several departments of the philosophical faculty, 53.1. That the average among the medical men should be the highest is readily explained by the fact that the rush to this department is especially great, and that the number of assistant professors and privat-docents is very large. On the other hand, the law faculties have not been attracting so many candidates, and the chances for earlier promotion are accord-

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ingly greater. The highest averages are reported from Berlin, Königsberg, Munich, and Leipzig; which can readily be explained in the case of the first, third, and fourth, as these leading universities are the Ultima Thule of the German savant's ambition. The youngest full professors are found in Bonn, Heidelberg, Vienna, and Strassburg, in the non-theological faculties, and in Tübingen, Marburg, Innsbruck, Erlangen, and Giessen in all departments. There are only two full professors under thirty, both in the law department, one in Tübingen, and the other in Bern. About 4 per cent. of the professors continue in the harness after they have passed their seventieth year, but it should be remembered that in Austria, as in the German provinces of Russia, professors are retired by law when they reach this age. Eulenburg suggests that the German states pass a law giving the incumbent of an academic chair the right to retire at the age of sixty-five with a pension, and making this compulsory, except in rare cases, at the age of seventy, but in each instance, in the latter case, making the incumbent Professor Emeritus and giving the "Lehrauftrag" to a younger man. This, he declares, would be justice to both students and professors. His discussion has an added interest when compared with the paper published in 1876 by Laspeyres on the same subject.

## PRESIDENT KRUGER'S AUTOBIOGRAPHY.

*The Memoirs of Paul Kruger*, four times President of the South African Republic. Told by Himself. The Century Company. 1902.

These memoirs were (in 1901 and 1902) dictated by Mr. Kruger to his own private secretary, and to a former Under Secretary of the South African Republic; and were afterwards revised and brought into a more finished shape by a clergyman (Dr. Schowalter), who published them in German. Though the latter did this work in personal communication with Mr. Kruger during the latter's residence in Holland, the process has naturally taken away a little of the freshness which an autobiography entirely written or dictated by the old President would have had; and the English translation, being made from the German version, itself rendered from the Dutch original, stands at two removes from the *ipsissima verba* of the author. This circumstance slightly reduces the directness and raciness of the narrative, making it less characteristic of the man than the conversations which various persons have reported with him. Nevertheless, the book has its individuality, and remains a valuable record of the important events in which its author bore a part.

There is comparatively little of his private life in it; indeed, hardly any except some stories of hunting adventures in early days and of experiences in expeditions against the Kaffirs. There are very few reflections, and few descriptions of the life and society of the Boer settlers. No literary art has been employed, and one sees that the narrative flows from a mind that does not know what literary art is, and has not got that kind of imaginative quality which, in the absence of literary training, is nevertheless able to produce matter that appeals to the imagination or the emotions of the reader. Neither does the humor which Mr. Kruger undoubtedly possesses (for it emerges in the similes and illustrations he has often employed in his talk and his speeches) come much to the surface in this book, as may, indeed, be deemed natural when one remembers the circumstances of sorrow and depression under which the work was composed, in exile, after the news of his wife's death, and while hearing, day by day, of the events which heralded the overthrow of his country's independence.

The story begins with the youth's departure from the Colesburg district in Cape Colony, in 1835, when his father and his uncles left their farms to cross the Orange River into the wilderness, then almost unexplored, which lay to the northeast and was inhabited only by a few Kaffir tribes. The boys tended the cattle on the march, but were soon called upon to join in the fighting against the formidable chief Moselikatse, who attacked the emigrants and was ultimately driven by them far away to the north into what is now called Matabililand. Young Kruger took part in one of these military expeditions when only fourteen. When one thinks of the training given to a man's capacities by the kind of life these people led, fighting the Kaffirs in small parties (of course always against greatly superior numbers), pursuing such formidable wild beasts as the lion, the elephant, and the rhinoceros, all then abundant in a region whence they have since been exterminated, and striving against one another in their numerous public meetings and civil commotions, one is reminded of the life of the early settlers in Massachusetts, Virginia, and Kentucky, and one is not surprised that a training so stimulating and so varied should have produced the race of men whose military aptitudes and whose heroic tenacity have excited the admiration of the world during the recent war of the English against the two Dutch Republics. The citizens of early Rome and the Greeks in their great creative ages had similar experiences of war as well as of civil struggles—experiences one-half of which the modern world of Europe and the United States wants; and it is partly because the modern stay-at-home citizen does not know what the realities of war are like, that he shows himself so prone to the Jingoism of newspapers and music halls.

Mr. Kruger's public life began when he was elected a Field Cornet in 1852. This post, primarily military, carries with it civil duties also in the local government of South African States. Thenceforward he played a conspicuous part in all the wars and civil struggles of the Transvaal, being for a time Commandant-General in the days of President Burgers. In one expedition against the Kaffir chiefs Mapela and Makapaan, he had an adventure which displayed his fearless spirit. The Boer commando had driven the Kaffirs into some caves in the mountains, where they suffered severely from famine, but obstinately refused to surrender. Kruger, wishing to bring the siege to a close, crept in the dark into one of the caves where a large body of Kaffirs lay, and began to talk to them in their own language, suggesting that it would be better for them to surrender than to die of hunger, and offering to go to the white men to negotiate. Suddenly a Kaffir who recognized by the voice that it was not one of his own people who spoke, exclaimed "Magoa" (White man). Kruger gave himself up for lost, but at the cry all the Kaffirs rushed suddenly into the back of the cave. He followed them, and was not killed because in the darkness they could not distinguish the intruder. Finally, he again addressed them, simulating their accent, and succeeded in bringing 180 women and children out of the cave, himself remaining undiscovered till they had emerged.

In 1872, when M. W. Pretorius resigned office, some of the Boers wished to run Kruger for the Presidency of the Transvaal, but he refused to stand, though he opposed the election of Burgers, whose religious opinions he disliked, for Burgers was believed to be a free thinker, and Kruger has always belonged to the straitest sect of Calvinistic orthodoxy. When, in 1877, Theophilus Shepstone, a British envoy, acting on the discretionary instructions which the British Government had given him, proclaimed the annexation of the Transvaal to the British dominions, Kruger took a leading share in resisting this change; and was sent shortly afterwards to England, along with Jorissen, as a delegate from the Boers, charged to represent the unwillingness of the people to be annexed, and to induce the British Government to revoke Shepstone's act. The embassy failed, and the other Powers to whom the envoys went refused to interfere. Three years passed, during which the grant of self-governing institutions promised by Shepstone in 1877 was delayed. Then came the outbreak of December, 1880. Kruger was elected one of a triumvirate to administer the government of the reëstablished republic, and was one of those who signed the Convention of 1881, by which the British Government conceded a qualified independence to the Transvaal. In 1883 he became by popular election President of the Republic, and was reëlected in 1888, 1893, and 1898, so that from 1880 onwards the record of his life is practically a record of the history of that State down to his quitting it for Europe in 1901, when the English forces had occupied Pretoria. He departed at the wish of the Council, in order that he might endeavor to obtain some help, or at least some promise of intervention, from the European Powers.

The memoirs describe succinctly the chief events of those twenty troubled years, the wrangling with England over native territories, the negotiations of the convention of 1884, the various dealings with Cecil Rhodes, the discovery of the Rand gold field, and consequent inrush of foreign settlers, the visits of Sir Henry Loch, the British High Commissioner to Pretoria, the attempt to pacify the Uitlanders by the establishment of the Second Volksraad, the Johannesburg "Reform Movement" and Jameson Raid of 1896, the quarrel with and dismissal of Chief Justice Kotze, the Bloemfontein Conference of May, 1899, the negotiations with the British Colonial Office, and outbreak of war. About the course of the war itself little is said, for Mr. Kruger did not take part in the actual fighting, being seventy-four years old when the war began. It cannot be said that much new light is thrown upon all these transactions, of which the outline is, of

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course, already well known to the public, and which have been repeatedly discussed in England with great bitterness. Severe reflections are made upon Mr. Rhodes, who is represented as the chief source of trouble, upon Lord Milner, and upon Mr. Chamberlain, but the language used is not violent, and there is less of passion than might have been expected from one whose feelings are naturally strong. Indeed, the narrative generally reminds one in its dryness of Cæsar's 'Commentaries'; and we get a more lively impression of the writer's personality when we turn to the speeches (printed in the appendix) delivered by the old President at his inauguration in 1898, and to the Volksraad or Legislative Chamber, on several occasions in 1899 and 1900. In the religious tone that pervades them, and in their constant references to Scripture, as well as in their clumsiness of style and their forcible sincerity, they remind one of some of Oliver Cromwell's discourses.

The Transvaal Boers have often been compared to the English Puritans of the seventeenth century, and Kruger is a typical Boer in his tenacity, his astuteness, his courage, his religious fervor, his indifference to all that savors of culture. As is natural, he justifies his own action throughout, yet with a quiet dignity which shows no sensitiveness to criticism. One admission of error he does make when he says (page 183), in referring to the complaints made by the mining population at Johannesburg: "Much exception has been taken to my attitude, and perhaps I should have been wiser had I shown more consideration for the feelings of the foreigners." He adds, however: "But we must not forget the elements of which the population was composed, nor the fact that a population of the same class at Kimberley had caused a rebellion which obliged the British Government to send a considerable force to hold it in check; nor lastly, that a former accusation of inherent weakness had cost the Republic dear. I was determined, therefore, to do all in my power to avoid a renewal of that accusation." He regards the memories of the annexation and war, and the gold fields, as the source of all the later misfortunes of the Transvaal. "The words uttered by the late Gen. Joubert, when a burgher came gleefully to tell him that a new gold-reef had been discovered, were prophetic: 'Instead of rejoicing, you would do better to weep, for this gold will cause our country to be soaked in blood.' "

Though it chronicles a long tragedy, the tone of the book is not tragic. Though it comes from the chief actor in events which may be described as great, because they have affected the general history of the world and have fixed the world's attention, comparatively small as is the theatre on which the action went on, it does not exhaust even Mr. Kruger's own share in those events. Some day a life of him will have to be written which will present more fully in the setting of its singular social environment a powerful character and a remarkable career. Even poetry may perhaps occupy itself with figures in their way so dramatic as Paul Kruger and Cecil Rhodes, the protagonists of the races which have for a century been intermingled, and too frequently opposed, in South Africa. . . .

## THE "UNKNOWN" AND THE KNOWABLE.—II.

*Unknown Mexico:* A Record of Five Years' Exploration among the Tribes of the Western Sierra Madre; . . . Tepic and Jalisco; and among the Tarascos, etc. By Carl Lumholtz, M.A. 2 vols., illustrations and maps. 8vo, pp. xxxii., 530, 496. Scribners.

It is nothing short of a calamity—perhaps it is even so bad as a blunder—when an adequately financed scientific expedition, headed and controlled by a man so sympathetic, so earnest and so observant, sets forth as if the world had been finished day before yesterday. It would not have been dangerous to know and note, once and again, that now the scene of the explorer's activity is just where the Nebomes gently entreated the very first transcontinental travellers in North America (Cabeza de Vaca and his comrades) in 1536; nor yet that another spot in focus is where that obliging Spaniard Nuño de Guzman, who hunted slaves as Spaniards are expected to do (and was punished as by law provided), made his human drive in 1530, and a bit later founded a city, which Mr. Lumholtz visited, precisely as a buffer between civilization and one of the "Chichimec" tribes wherewith Mr. Lumholtz was seriously concerned; nor that another locality explored is where fell that gigantic, prehistoric meteorite, so long famous in legend and record, first made known to us parvenus by the soldier-poet Villagran, in his 32-canto heroics on the Conquest of 1598; nor that over some identical trails trudged the first discoverer of Arizona, Fray Marcos of Niza, in 1539, with his historic darky, and next year again with Coronado's brilliant army going to discovery and exploration not only of New Mexico, but so far as Kansas; nor that these same tribes (the Tarahumares and Tepehuanes) figure notably in the little affair of the first settlement of New Mexico, and the founding of the second and third towns within the limits of the United States, by one Juan de Oñate; and that these are also the very fellows who "invested us face to face" as chronicled by Fray Alonso de Benavides, author (1630) of the rarest and most precious "source" on the early ethnography of the Southwest; nor that yonder the neo-discoverer trod the very landscapes which interest some people because there the yellow-haired hero of the "Salto" came to succor the beleaguered Cristobal de Oñate (discoverer of the first great silver bonanza in the world, save one), and there perished, in one of the most remarkable cliff-stormings in history—a chapter finished *in situ* by the greatest administrative genius America knew in the three centuries following Columbus. It is unlikely that even the casual subscriber would "stop his paper" for reference by name or fame to Alvarado, Los Tajos, Mendoza, or the Peñol of Mixton; or for finding, along with the author's comfortable shiverings at seasonal austerities of climate in the upper Sierra Madre, confession of the fact that so recently as 1554, during one of his Indian campaigns in this now "unknown" land, Capt. Francisco de Ybarra lost forty horses frozen to death. Even in acute *magazinitis* it is a business blunder to ignore the fascinating associations of history and romance in which—and in their most brilliant sort—the entire field of Mr. Lumholtz's labors is so enormously rich. From only the most "marketable" and readable of these, the two volumes might have been thick-studded; or as large and fully as salable a volume iii. easily added.

"Of most of these tribes but little more than their names were known." Of none of these tribes was *anything* known—to some people. To say nothing of their modern scientific classification by linguistic stocks, or of the vocabularies, numerously printed, scattering along down from the very generation of the Conquest, all these tribes have been Christianized since before Plymouth Rock. Michuacan was the very first *Provincia* of the Santo Evangelio in Mexico, being erected to that dignity in 1535. It had more Franciscan missionaries than any other *Provincia* (v. Mendieta), beginning in 1525. Its Father Provincial in 1539 was none other than Fray Marcos—a student of the Tarascos 365 years ago. It lacks less than six years of three full centuries since the "American cave-dwellers of the present age" were summarily and permanently husked of their primitiveness. In 1598 the people Mr. Lumholtz reckons practically unsophisticated by European contact, were recorded as "very apt in reading, writing, counting, and the catechism"—all of which it is not unfair to account colorably European. The clothing he pictures and describes was imposed by the Jesuits upon his "primitive tribes," which, when they *were* primitive, mostly went stark. One is tempted to quote gems from the multitude of witnesses that record—sometimes in delightfully human fashion—their clerical sufferings in modesty, and the seriousness of the task they had in teaching the Indians to "dress honestly." But it would take space. It is enough to quote, as to the Tarahumares and Tepehuanes, Fray Nicholas Arnaya, in the *Anua* of 1601: "andan desnudos"—they go naked.

The towns and pueblos the explorer dwelt, studied, and confided in—these were the reform work of the missionaries whom he has to thank that he found so beggarly an account of empty cave-dwellings. It is not sufficiently remembered how enormous a change in this particular was wrought by the Jesuits and Franciscans over a vast part of the continent—more than a million square miles. Even among the Pueblo Indians of New Mexico, our great example of sedentary cultures, a very extensive and important concentration of villages was brought about by the pioneer missionaries. In 1601 Mr. Lumholtz's Tepehuanes began to be gathered by the Jesuits from their "burrows" into towns. Arnaya specifies 2,000 of them already in that year centralized in one pueblo. By 1607 these same Indians had six missionaries; and 4,000 of them had been Christianized and diverted from their caves to dwelling in twenty pueblos. As to the Tarascos, by 1577 there had been only seven books that we know of printed in their tongue in the City of Mexico. The Sierra Madre proper has been a missionary field ever since 1645. Among the "unknown" Coras, Father Diego de Guzman began his apostolic labors in 1619; and, long before him, Father Arnaya was much in evidence. By 1752 the one State of Sonora, with which Mr. Lumholtz has much to do, had a little matter of twenty-nine missions, conducted in four aboriginal languages, and with generic "reduction" of the tribes from nomadry to formal pueblos. In the same year the Tarahumares had sev-

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enteen Jesuit missions—and four notches on their stick of martyrs. And so on.

The report of still-inhabited caves to the northward was already old in Mexico at the Conquest; and, in its legendary form of the "Seven Caves" and Chicomoztoc, had much to do with the actual discovery of New Mexico and Arizona. It figures, for instance, in Motolinia (1540), Zumarraga (1547), and the 'Anales de Cuauhtitlan' (circa 1550). By the Indian historians Camargo, Duran, and Ixtlilxochitl, all before 1600, it is mentioned as a long-time tradition; and it is even referred to in the 'Popul-Vuh' of Guatemala. Closer knowledge began with the Conquest. In 1531, Espiritu Santo de Tepic was founded by Guzman as an outpost against the "Chichimecos" (not a tribe-name, but general for wild Indians) dwelling to the northeast; "a barbarous folk that live scattered in caverns and woods like savage beasts. They maintain themselves by the hunt and wild fruits. They make wine of certain roots wherewith they get themselves drunk." The *Anua* of 1596 speaks of a Tepehuan: "in a cave set amid crags, where he dwelt like a wild beast." The *Anua* of 1597, on the same locality: "Our Lord hath pleased to get them out from those caves and crags, which seem altogether inaccessible." On the same page: "Another spot, or, better said, habitation of wild animals, as they have their burrows *(madrigueras)* in the apertures of the cliffs." Again: the priest "sought them in their caves" and persuaded them to come down and form a pueblo. The *Anua* of 1601 mentions the Tepehuañes "in their peaks and ancient burrows." Torquemada, writing in 1610 his magnificent 'Monarquia Indiana,' tells of these Indians that they "had no Clothing, nor Houses, and contented themselves with only living in Caves." "There are many Caves, and Caverns, ordinary dwellings of the Chichimecos." Of the "Tepeguanes": "los mas bellicosos de la Nueva España." And much more. Ribas, in his important 'Triumfos' (Madrid, 1645), quotes Father Juan Fonte on the Tarahumares in 1608: "The dwelling of much of the people is in caves, which are many in their land, and some so capacious that in one live a whole kindred *(parentela)*, making their divisions of little houses within." The book of burials of the mission of Bacadehuachi, 1655, records the killing of the people of the Sierra Madre in their cave-dwellings by raiding Janos and Jocomes. Tello, 1653, mentions their sacred caves (p. 775 of his 'Conquista . . . de Xalisco'). And so on. Incidentally, in the weighty Final Report covering his travels in the Sierra Madre in 1883-84, Bandelier notes (II., 521) "the well-known fact that part of the Tarahumares dwelt, and dwell to-day, in caves."

The Peyote-cult and ceremonial intoxication are indicated, for example, in Herrera (1601), Torquemada (1610), Ribas (1645), Tello (1653). In the *Anua* of 1598 the Demon Cachiripa is said to have ordered these Indians to "make Mitotes (dances) wherein they intoxicate themselves and take the Peyote." Vetancurt's rich 'Teatro Mexicano' (Mexico, 1698) furnishes a possible clue to the puzzling name Mr. Lumholtz gives the Peyote. Along with the latter plant, Vetancurt mentions its variety the "Ololiuhqui, which means 'round leaf,' also called Coaxihuitl, which is 'snake-herb.'" "This is esteemed by the Indians because the Priests of their Idols used to take it to receive the answers to their doubts." And again: "Peyote, Root of the Peyotl. Although the natives esteem it, the Spaniards abhor it as Superstitious, since the Indians are wont to take it for divination and to know the occult in dreams. It is mixed with Zacazili and Ololiuhqui. They take it that they may not feel weariness." A century earlier yet, in his famous 'Historia Natural y Moral,' 1590, Acosta mentions that "when they would see visions they take Ololiuhqui." The famous 'Apostolicos Afanes,' otherwise 'Historia del Nayarit' (including Sonora and Sinaloa), 1754, in describing one of the ceremonial dances about as clearly as Lumholtz does, and the musical bow with it, says: "They put close there [to the master singer] a bowl full of Peyote, which is a diabolic root that they drink ground, that they may not droop under the lassitude of so long a function." That classic of Sonora, the 'Rudo Ensayo' (written in 1761-2), describes the native drinks, of which "the worst is the Sauco, on which they get drunk for three and five days at a time." The 'Estado de la Mision de San Lorenzo . . . de Zumas' (MS. about 1750) tells of these Indians (the people of the Casas Grandes): "It is a folk given to intoxication; and the worst is not that of wine and aguardiente, but that of the herb they call Peiote. This transports them in such sort that it renders them mad. It is among them a mystic herb, and they use it in their religious gatherings." It is of course needless to refer to Bandelier's characterization of this herb, or to the familiar historic fact that it was also employed by the Pueblos of New Mexico to produce wilful trances; and that its use was prohibited, centuries ago, by the Spanish authorities.

The sacrifice of arrows? Even Castañeda, the dyspeptic member and scribe of Coronado's expedition in 1540, mentions them in the Sierra Madre; as does the 'Apostolicos Afanes' of 1754. The peculiar cult of deer and their heads? It is in the *Anua* of 1598; to say nothing of that of 1607, 'El Nayarit' in 1754, etc. The musical bow is frequently mentioned by early sources, at least as far back as the *Anua* of 1598. So is the rain-dance, and with no little particularity—as in the 'Rudo Ensayo,' and in the anonymous Jesuit letter of 1658: "a dance truly diabolic, which they call Torom-Raqui, to procure rain." The shamanism is very reasonably described in Vetancurt, Herrera, Torquemada, Tello, 'El Nayarit,' Ribas, the 'Rudo Ensayo,' the *Anuas* of 1596 *et seq.* And so on to a tiresome list. Even the ability of the sorcerers to change themselves to animals—so familiar to folklorists throughout the Southwest—is detailed by the first historian of America, Oviedo, 1535; by Mendieta, writing in 1596; by Herrera, 1601; and innumerable others, as by Ribas 258 years ago, with the further coincidence with Lumholtz that these Indians called their fetishes "abuelos" (grandparents).

The almost ubiquitous aboriginal mode of "healing," by a sleight-of-hand "sucking out" from the afflicted part the stone or thorn or other foreign substance supposed to cause the disease, has, of course, been familiar to scholars ever since Cabeza de Vaca took his involuntary medical course *ante* 1535; and is so innumerably described in the old sources—and in some of them so well—that there seems no need to quote. Even in so fragmentary a matter, it is of interest to note that the marriage custom mentioned by Lumholtz among the Tarahumares (I., 270), and the Huicholes (II., 94), has prior explication in the 'Cosas' of Sahagun (II., 270) who died 1590; in Mendieta (1596); and in other sources (not forgetting the 'Estado de . . . Sonora,' 1730), wherein is described the aboriginal tying up of the bride and groom in their two *petates*—a ceremonial of which he has fallen upon the dwindled relic. Generally, in reporting such things as "mountain-worship," it would be worth while to give a reference hint of the *apachetas* and other features of this well-developed cult in Peru and our Southwest. It surprises the initiate reader—and deprives the uninitiate—to find no reference from the rattlesnake cult (of which Mr. Lumholtz mentions traces) to the extraordinary ophism once common to all the Pueblos, and still so notorious among the Moquis; or from the ceremonial races of the Tarahumares to the closely related *Juib* of the Pueblos—particularly as a specified object of the trip was to "shed light upon the relations between the ancient culture of the valley of Mexico and the Pueblo Indians." In these volumes, at least, that opening promise seems to have been forgotten altogether. The making of "a kind of beer called in Mexican Spanish tesvino" is described, and the extensive ceremonial use of this drink of fermented corn has much attention, but no correlation. It is, of course, the well-known "tizwin"—accompaniment and "bracer" of Apache outbreaks. Its general name "in Mexican Spanish" (as well as in Peru) is *chicha;* "texgüino," as it is properly spelled, being a provincialism of Sonora, Chihuahua and Sinaloa. The author's "shirgo" is an Hidalgo local word, of Otomi parentage, and written "xirgo." "Macuchi" is not exactly "as tobacco is called in Mexico," being a rather limited Coahuila term.

A critical knowledge of Spanish—particularly as to its historic readjustments and enrichments in the provincial Americas—would be to the explorer in these lands not only a living spring of recurrent delight and suggestion, but a safeguard in many sorts. Mr. Lumholtz has by pure pains avoided more pitfalls than one would have expected, but finds some needless ones. "Vecinos," which he uses with frequency, and always translates "neighbors," has indeed this meaning, but, in the relation in which he encounters it, is a specific word. The people of a town, and not their neighbors, are its "vecinos." Again: "The regard the Indians have for their Mexican masters is shown in the name by which they refer to them—Coyotes" (II., 330). What it "shows" depends somewhat on one's eyesight. Coyote, indeed (Aztec *coyotl*), is now universally familiar among us for the "prairie-wolf"—though we ordinarily butcher it with almost any other pronunciation than the correct co-yó-te. But his Indians were not calling the Mexicans "wolves" nor "dogs." For centuries the word has been in common use in Spanish America as an adjective, meaning native, *del pais*, or sometimes wild in the cognate sense—as we say "wild currants." The common expression "Indio coyote" is not "wolf-Indian," but merely native In-

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dian—and in his native state. The "Criollos" (from which our "Creole," often as ignorantly abused), or people of Spanish parentage born in America, were often called "Coyotes," not contemptuously, but in this ancient sense; and *xocoyote* was the regular Aztec term for the youngest child—a word still current and an endearment (as *pet* child) in old California families.

Eminently absurd is the etymology attempted for "Papasquiaro" (Papáscuaro). "The name possibly means *paz quiero* (I want peace), alluding to the terrible defeat of the Indians by the Spaniards in the seventeenth century, . . . the uprising of 1616." There is no such possibility, linguistically; and in fact the town was founded by the Jesuits by 1597 in the valley of that aboriginal name. The author's place-names sometimes limp, but perhaps not elsewhere so seriously. It is late for sober praise of "the Aztec Empire"; and a pity to lose that fine Mexican Indian, Fray Diego Duran, who died in 1598, but left us two big tomes of aboriginal history, in "Diego Duran, a Spanish missionary." "Chilicote" (I., 440, etc.) is a blunder meriting not so much reprobation as gloss. So far as we recall, this not uncommon word has not yet found its deserts in any dictionary. The Century gives it "Chilli-Coyote"—a monstrous absurdity, yoking pepper and the coyote. The Standard does not give it in any shape; and among such American writers as use the word it is almost invariably distorted beyond all hint of its parentage and real meaning—as, "Chilicote," "Chilicothe," "Chili-Coyote," "Chilli-cajote," and many more. The word has nothing to do with chile or coyote. It is Chilacayote, from the Aztec *xilacayotli*, compound of *xilotl* (young ear of corn) and *ayotli* (gourd). The plant is of the gourd family, and the name is used in the Southwest and in Mexico for several varieties—otherwise called megarrhiza, cucurbitus lagenaria, echinocystis, wild cucumber, big-root, bottle gourd, and what-not. Vetancurt ('Teatro Mexicano,' 1698) writes it Zilacayote, and mentions other gourds of related name, as the Tlalayote.

Utter worthlessness of the index cannot be too strongly deplored in a work of this character. Not only does this omit the important aboriginal terms which have become part of scientific nomenclature and are particularly vital for reference here—as mitote, Tequila, jacal, Nayarit, vecino, tarima, chuchupate, and the like—it does not even enter birth, marriage, or death customs, races or running, medicine, etc., nor yet Peyote, the most considerable single word in the book. The illustration is liberal, and the items in color are very good. There wholly lacks, however, any such ethnographic portraiture as Professor Starr's example (also in Mexico) has made the privilege and rather the duty of other students. The vice of redrawing photographs into "artistic treatments" is particularly out of place in books whose pictorial responsibility is less to decoration than to truth.

## FOUR BOOKS ON MUSICAL TOPICS.

*Musicians' Wit, Humor, and Anecdote.* By Frederick J. Crowest. Scribners.

*Reminiscences, Musical and Other.* By Fanny Reed. Boston: Knight & Millet.

*Orchestral Instruments and their Use.* By Arthur Elson. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.

*Johann Sebastian Bach*, the Organist, and his Works for the Organ. By A. Pirro. Schirmer.

The eccentricities of genius are nowhere more abundantly illustrated than in the realm of music, and it is therefore easy to compile a readable volume of amusing traits and anecdotes. Nearly a quarter of a century ago Mr. Crowest brought out two bulky volumes of musical anecdotes. They were soon out of print, despite the prohibitive price. They have been recast and enlarged for the present issue, which is practically a new book; and illustrations have been added by J. Philip Donne. There is no attempt at classification, and it cannot be said that the compiler has always been mindful that brevity is the soul of wit. His own attempts at humor are pitiable, and his knack of spoiling a story by the manner of telling it is manifest in the case of Chopin at the dinner party. Being asked to play, the musician replied, according to Mr. Crowest, "Ah, Sir, I have just dined; your hospitality, I see, demands payment." What Chopin really said was, "Ah, Madam, I have eaten so little." Mr. Crowest talks of "pandering to the taste of the *vox populi*," and does other queer things; but he partly atones for them by his industry, which has enabled him to bring together some of the best of the old stories and some new ones. We get a glimpse of Beethoven "at home" through extracts from his diary: "The cook's off again—I shied half-a-dozen books at her head"; of Gluck, who, when asked by Marie Antoinette how his new opera "Armida" was getting along, replied, with the usual modesty of musicians; "Madame, il est bientôt fini, et vraiment ce sera superbe"; of Handel, who remarked to his prosperous publisher: "My dear Walsh, as it is but just we should stand upon an equal footing, you shall compose the next opera and I will sell it"—and so on.

A woman who has sung for, and been on friendly terms with, Liszt, Massenet, and Paderewski, not to speak of Paul Déchanel, Benjamin Constant, Munkacsy, Coquelin, and King Edward VII., has reason to write her reminiscences, as Fanny Reed has done. Her opening chapter gives us glimpses of war time. She sang a battle hymn on the Fourth of July, 1864, at the American Embassy in London. Some time later she met the Prince of Wales at Cowes, and sang for him. After an interval of eight years she again met him, when he asked her if she remembered singing for him one evening at Cowes, and showed his "truly royal memory" by mentioning the names of all the songs he had heard on that occasion. Liszt she first met in W. W. Story's rooms in the Barberini Palace. "All Rome is talking of your voice," he said to her, on being introduced. She sang an aria from "Le Prophète," and he accompanied her on the piano. He, too, had a royal memory, for when, a few years later, she again met him and wondered whether he recalled her, he went to the piano and began playing the Meyerbeer aria she had sung on her first visit to Rome. He taught her some of his own songs, then new. In describing his appearance at the piano, the author says: "I remember being in after years greatly struck with the resemblance of Mme. Wagner's eyes to her father's—clear, bright, piercing, and full of intelligence." She also met Liszt one evening in Paris. "When he came into the room, every one rose, as if at the entrance of royalty." In Paris she also witnessed the first triumphs of Paderewski. Concerning his appearance at the piano, she says that he, while playing, "from time to time lifts and drops his eyelids in a dreamy way, showing two wonderfully sad eyes full of pale blue light, with an expression seemingly oblivious to everything about him." In the final chapter the writer expresses the opinion that those for whom American life has been too strenuous may find in Paris the "rest and harmless diversion" so much needed by them.

Arthur Elson's book on the orchestra gives a description of each instrument now employed by civilized nations, a brief account of its history, an idea of the technical and acoustical principles illustrated by its performance, and an explanation of its value and functions in the modern orchestra. All this the sub-title tells us, and the promises made therein are redeemed not only conscientiously, but entertainingly. One can enjoy a good orchestral concert without knowing the names of the instruments, but every frequenter of concerts must feel interested in the sources of the sounds heard; and the more he knows about them, the more he will be able to realize a composer's ingenuity or genius in clothing his thoughts in appropriate colors. There have been combinations of instruments at all times, but it has been only gradually (since the sixteenth century) that musicians have learned to group them together intelligently, and to make each speak a language of its own. The greatest masters of this art were Schubert and Weber, Berlioz, Liszt, and Wagner. Mr. Elson would hardly, on sober second thought, defend his own assertion that Richard Strauss is "the greatest of all orchestral writers." Apart from a few rather cheap realistic tricks, there is very little in his scores in the line of coloring that was not anticipated by the five composers just named; and as for polyphonic complexity, none of Strauss's scores compares with the last acts of "Siegfried," "Tristan," "Götterdämmerung," and "Parsifal." Nor can we echo Mr. Elson's assertion that "Beethoven stands out as the foremost figure in musical history." He is the greatest writer of symphonies, no doubt, but in all other branches he has been surpassed. In orchestration he is inferior to half a dozen others, and it is not true that there is "hardly a passage in all his scores which would be improved by any change." If Schubert, Liszt, or Wagner had orchestrated these symphonies, they would be more beautiful even than they now are. But these are details; Mr. Elson has written a book admirably suited to the needs of music lovers. He makes the violin, the oboe, the clarionet, the horn, the trombone, etc., as interesting as if they were living persons. One of the odd and inexplicable facts mentioned by him is that the fathers of the New England Church in the eighteenth century approved of the violoncello, and paid a player as much as $70 a year, "while regarding the violin as a device of Satan, and the organ as the most utter abomination in the eyes of the Lord."

If there is one book which every organist ought to have it is Pirro's 'Johann Se-

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bastian Bach, the Organist, and his Works for the Organ.' Wallace Goodrich has made a readable translation of it, and there is a valuable preface by C. M. Widor, the eminent French organist and composer. Bach is probably as un-Gallic as a man could possibly be; yet some of his most ardent and intelligent admirers (including Saint-Saëns) are Frenchmen. Pirro's book will add many to the number. Widor gives the history of the Bach cult in Paris, which began sixty years ago. He treats at length of Bach's technic as a virtuoso, and makes an interesting comparison between the organ and the orchestra in the matter of expression. While denying that the organ is capable of as much expression, he holds that it is "the only instrument which can prolong the same volume of sound indefinitely, and thus create the religious impression of the infinite." The art of organ playing, he says, has not changed since Bach, but our organs are growing distinctly better. As for M. Pirro, he prefaces his able and useful analysis of the organ works with a reference, which is hardly an exaggeration, to "the man who suddenly surpassed all that had been done before him, while at the same time anticipating all that was to be written in the future." His declared object in writing this book is to make it easier for the student to play Bach "in the Bach spirit." There are also short sketches of Bach's predecessors and of his life, besides an appendix containing a catalogue of his complete works as printed in forty-six volumes by the Bach Gesellschaft.

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*Horace Greeley,* Founder and Editor of the New York *Tribune.* (Historic Lives Series). By William Alexander Linn, author of 'History of the Mormons.' Illustrated. D. Appleton & Co. 1903.

That Mr. Linn was connected with the *Tribune* for a time, as a member of its editorial staff, is not an important factor in his life of the great *Tribune* editor. The wonder is that he was taken on, considering Greeley's rule, "Horned cattle and college graduates need not apply," for he was just out of college. If there was much intimacy between him and his chief, there is little indication of it here, but he writes with the ease and confidence of a man widely familiar with the facts of Greeley's life and with his political environment, and not with the timidity of one who has crammed himself for a piece of writing foreign to the habit of his mind. There is scant endeavor to analyze the qualities which constituted Greeley's character from the biographical psychologist's point of view. The nearest approach to anything of this kind is the fifth chapter, "Sources of the *Tribune's* Influence." For the rest, who will may hear the interesting story told, and discover for himself, as best he can, how Greeley's character was made up.

Taken as a whole, the book has a circumflex movement. More strictly speaking, Greeley's character as the book displays it has such a movement. It mounts by painful stages from his birth and early childhood in New Hampshire, his boyhood and apprenticeship in Vermont, his first discouragements and successes in New York, through his various experiences as editor and publisher with the *New Yorker* and other papers, to the establishment of the *Tribune,* and still mounts for a dozen years or more with the steadily increasing influence of the paper which was to him his best-loved child. Even while it mounts, there are intimations, more and more pronounced as time goes on, of those defects which gathered strength during the two closing decades of his life. We receive the impression that his was a nature for which the uses of adversity were sweeter than those of prosperity; that the politician subordinated the reformer more and more as he advanced in his career, and that political ambition got the better of his generous social aims; and in general that decadence was the most characteristic note of his personal development once he had made the *Tribune* a first-rate political force. But even as the ascending series of his years had intimations of his ultimate decline, the descending series knew much of fine insurgence and eruption of the man's better self. The main effect is not exhilarating but depressing. It is made more so by the contrast of the later with the earlier period. It is as if Mr. Linn had painted-in a luminous background for a figure of pathetic and even tragical significance.

There is praise for Greeley's *Tribune* as a good newspaper, and there are stories of heroic feats accomplished by his reporters, while still one cannot but wonder whether it was worth while to spend so much energy and horse-flesh to bring a Governor's message from Albany to New York a little quicker than the other papers did. Greeley's "isms" are viewed as sources of his strength. A chapter on the tariff is the shortest and least satisfactory in the book. That on Greeley's part in the anti-slavery contest is much better, and exhibits his moral detestation of slavery as generally subordinate to political considerations. His preferring of Douglas to Lincoln in 1858 and after is barely touched. His relation to the civil war exaggerates, quite certainly, the sillier side of that relation, which nevertheless went far to justify the sentiment of Garrison that he was "the worst of counsellers, the most unsteady of all leaders, the most pliant of all compromisers in times of great public emergency." Mr. Linn tells a shocking story of a brutal editorial assaulting Lincoln which Greeley wrote the day before Lincoln's death and would have printed the day after; but his authority permits us to doubt the truth of it. Greeley's Presidential campaign was a tangled skein of worse and better elements. Grant's opponents had a good cause, but the injection of Greeley into it was fatal, resulting, as it did, from a triumph of political chicanery. He should have known and heeded the advice of Sir Thomas Browne: "Pursue virtue virtuously." Dreadful the penalty of his absurd ambition—an untimely death and with a broken heart. The pity of it, for the erring man was fundamentally a child.

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*The Poets of Transcendentalism:* An Anthology. Edited by George Willis Cooke. With introductory essay and biographical notes. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1903.

That unwearied and accurate literary laborer, Mr. George W. Cooke, has published a book which aims to contain examples of the poetry of the American Transcendental period, or, more strictly speaking, of the type of literature swayed by the Emersonian influence. So marked was this influence, and so interesting the period, that the existence of this manual justifies itself; and it is peculiarly timely amid the general recognition and prospective celebration of Emerson's hundredth birthday. The obstacles in the way of such a competition lie chiefly in deciding which literary men of a period fall really within a certain influence, and, furthermore, in determining the point where that influence could be said to wane.

It is obvious that all writers in Emerson's *Dial* might fairly be included, yet it is doubtful whether the few sonnets published in that magazine by Lowell quite justify the prominence here given him, as second to Emerson only. Among the younger writers of the book, it might perhaps be doubted whether Sill, Burroughs, and others were quite to be classed with the Transcendental or Emersonian authors. Still, it is difficult to draw the line, and it could scarcely be better done, on the whole, than has been done by Mr. Cooke. We note with some surprise the omission of the late Octavius Brooks Frothingham, whose fine hymn, "The Children of the Cross," has secured a place in the hymn-books. We note, also, the usual want of uniformity in designating the name of married ladies among Mr. Cooke's authors. For instance, one of the most valuable features of the book is the fullest collection we have ever seen brought together of the remarkable poems of Ellen (Sturgis) Hooper, which ought long ago to have been printed in a volume; but her middle or maiden name is omitted, as also in the case of her younger sister, Caroline (Sturgis) Tappan. Mr. Cooke says in his notes of this lady: "She was called 'The American Bettine,' probably because of a poem she printed in the *Dial.*" But this did not proceed from any single poem; it grew rather from a general parallelism of gifts and habits between her and that German child of genius whose correspondence with Goethe was then very widely read. On the other hand, Mr. Cooke prints the maiden name of Mrs. Julia Ward Howe, as is usual, and follows the too common practice of assigning to Mrs. Helen Jackson a name which she would peculiarly have disapproved, by introducing the patronymics of both of her husbands and making her appear as Mrs. Helen Hunt Jackson.

These, however, are mere technicalities, the essential thing being that Mr. Cooke has done well to bring together work purely and originally national; and quite as distinctive, for instance, as that of the Lake School in England. Perhaps in some instances, as in that of Mrs. Helen Jackson, the editor has selected too exclusively the religious poems, but he has in general shown excellent taste and judgment. The closing paragraphs in the introduction, in which he views the so-called Transcendentalism from the point of view of the present day and shows its limitations, are exceptionally just.

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*English Pleasure Gardens.* By Rose Standish Nichols. The Macmillan Co. Pp. xxii., 324. 11 plans, 300 ills.

Surely there was no burning need of another history of gardening in England, yet so strong is the Englishman's love of gardens and so great his wealth of admirable

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examples, that it is small wonder the tale is repeated. There is at least some excuse for it, since such exhaustive treatises as the one prefixed to Loudon's Encyclopædia (1834), or the still older history by George W. Johnson (1829), are rarely seen, and not quite what one wants nowadays. Were it not for the altogether excellent 'History' by the Hon. Alicia Amherst, which appeared some eight years ago, Miss Nichols's book would have filled an actual need, and would have been a more original contribution to our garden knowledge. As it is, it follows very closely the method of Miss Amherst's book, and produces, as a whole, a marked impression of similarity—an impression which, however, is scarcely confirmed by an examination of the book in detail.

It is a far cry from the English garden of the twentieth century to classic pleasure grounds, yet from the Greek and Roman garden, by way of the Romano-British garden, Miss Nichols would have us think our modern formal garden derived. And it may be that some of its general arrangements come from classic precedents, but one would rather suspect those precedents of having been transmitted through the Renaissance in Italy and brought over the Alps at a later day, than of having survived through the dark ages from a time when the ancient Romans themselves carried them to the far-away island colony. Be this as it may, Miss Nichols manages to descant very pleasantly for half a hundred pages upon classic pleasure grounds and their somewhat remote relation to the subject. Her chapters on "Monastic Gardens" and on "The Mediæval Pleasaunce," which are delightfully illustrated by reproductions of miniatures from a fifteenth-century manuscript of the 'Roman de la Rose,' serve to bridge a long gap, and bring us to the firmer ground of "Tudor Gardens." Of such gardens, although the remains may be scanty enough, we have accurate descriptions and a very complete idea, but it is when we reach the "Elizabethan Flower-Garden" that we begin to find (in spite of the destroying hands of two centuries of landscape gardeners) examples which show with certainty the very kind of gardens described in Sidney's 'Arcadia,' "not fairer in natural ornaments than artificial inventions." The story carries us on through "The Garden of the Stuarts," past the time of French and Italian influence, through the days when the landscape school carried all before it, and down to the revival of formal gardening at the present time.

The book deals not alone with garden design, but with the influences, political or social, that make the garden in any age an expression of the life and thought of the people; with the herbs and flowers and shrubs and fruits that grew therein; with the old herbalists and their wise saws; and with those who made gardens in England or wrote about them from Tacitus to Tennyson.

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*Mediæval French Literature.* By Gaston Paris. Translated from the French by Hannah Lynch. (The Temple Primers.) London: Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1903.

This little book possesses a sad interest as the last by Gaston Paris. In a measure, it reveals the sources of his strength: his wonderful erudition, his broad outlook, his good judgment, his perfect honesty, his orderly and philosophic mind. A scholar without reproach, possessed of extraordinary knowledge gained by a lifetime of earnest devotion to a subject that he loved, an expositor of singular skill, Gaston Paris was fitted, as no one else has ever been, to write a monumental history of mediæval French Literature. Would that he had lived to perform this task on the large scale which he conceived. The "cyclopædic primer" before us is an excellent compendium of fact, arranged systematically, with due proportion and admirable perspective; but it is too succinct an account to show the master at his best. The plan of the series allowed him little opportunity to reveal the imaginative and literary power so richly his. Perhaps he held himself in too strict restraint. Will his death in the fulness of his power serve to remind others who likewise have much to impart, of the danger of delay in attempting to fulfil their cherished hopes?

The translation of the primer is, we regret to say, painfully inadequate. It is merely a bit of hackwork, always mechanical, often absurd. A glance at the proper names (they are written every which way) would alone suffice to prove the translator's incompetence. Nevertheless, those who cannot use the 'Manuel' in the original must be satisfied with it as it is. Though brief, and too informative for easy continuous reading, it will be found to be the most perspicuous as well as comprehensive and authoritative survey of French literature, from its earliest beginnings to the Renaissance, that is now accessible to English readers.

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## BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Lyman. The Other Room. The Outlook Company. $1.
Adams, C. F. The Constitutional Ethics of Secession, and "War Is Hell." Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 25 cents.
A Prairie Winter. By an Illinois Girl. The Outlook Company. $1.
Arnold, Matthew. Essays on the Study of Poetry, and a Guide to English Literature. Macmillan.
Baskervill, W. M., and Sewell, J. W. A School Grammar of the English Language. American Book Co. 50 cents.
Beckett, A. A. John Bull's Year Book for 1903. London: The John Bull Press.
Beecher, H. W. The Background of Mystery. Boston: The Pilgrim Press. 25 cents.
Bergey, Ellwood. Why Soldiers Desert from the United States Army. Philadelphia: W. F. Fell & Co.
Blenner, C. J. Types of Beauty. Abbey Press. $1.50.
Boger, A. J. The Story of General Bacon. London: Methuen & Co. 6s.
Bonner, R. J. Greek Composition for Schools. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co.
Brown, M. S. Epoch-Making Papers in United States History. Macmillan. 25 cents.
Burton, A. R. E. Cape Colony for the Settler. London: P. S. King & Son.
Cheston, H. C., Dean, P. R., and Timmerman, C. E. A Laboratory Manual of Physics. American Book Co. 50 cents.
Coleman, Leighton. A History of the American Church to the Close of the Nineteenth Century. (Oxford Church Textbooks.) London: Rivingtons.
Collier, W. M. The Trusts: What Can We Do with Them? What Can They Do for Us? Baker & Taylor Company. 50 cents.
Connelley, W. E. An Appeal to the Record. Topeka: Published by the author.
Danzinger, Adolph. Jewish Forerunners of Christianity. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Daudet, A. La Belle Nivernaise. Edited by F. W. Freeborn. Boston: Ginn & Co. 25 cents.
Davis, C. G. How to Build a Launch from Plans. Forest and Stream Publishing Co.
Delitzsch, Friedrich. Zweiter Vortrag über Babel und Bibel. Stuttgart: Deutsche Verlags-Anstalt.
Dieterich, Albrecht. Über Wesen und Ziele der Volkskunde. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.
English Poems from Chaucer to Kipling. Edited by T. M. Parrott and A. W. Long. Boston: Ginn & Co.
English Verse. Edited by R. M. Alden. H. Holt & Co.
Fabriczy, Cornelius von. Medaillen der Italienischen Renaissance. Leipzig: Hermann Leemann.
Flint, Annie. A Girl of Ideas. Scribners. $1.50.
Freeman, J. E. If Not the Saloon—What? Baker & Taylor Co.
Haggard, H. P. Pearl-Maiden. Longmans, Green, & Co. $1.50.
Hallman, W. N. A Primer. (The Laurel Readers.) Boston: C. C. Birchard & Co.
Halévy, Elie. Thomas Hodgskin. Paris: Clément Rueff.
Hall, Bolton. The Game of Life. A. Wessels Company. $1.
Hamilton, G. L. The Indebtedness of Chaucer's Troilus and Criseyde to Guido delle Colonne's Historia Trojana. Columbia University Press (Macmillan). $1.25.
Hart, H. C. The Works of Shakespeare: The Tragedy of Othello. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Heydrick, B. A. How to Study Literature. Hinds & Noble.
Hutton, Laurence. Literary Landmarks of Oxford. Scribners.
Iliowizi, Henry. The Archierey of Samara. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.
James, W., and Molé, A. Dictionary of the French Languages. Rewritten and enlarged by Louis Tolhausen and George Payn. Macmillan.
Johnson, H. W. The Private Life of the Romans. (The Lake Classical Series.) Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co.
Judd, C. H. Genetic Psychology for Teachers. (International Education Series.) D. Appleton & Co.
Kaerst, J. Die Antike Idee der Oekumene in ihrer Politischen und Kulturellen Bedeutung. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.
Knapp, Adeline. The Story of the Philippines. (The World and Its People.) American Book Co. 60 cents.
Knauer, Hermann. Eine Amerikafahrt und die Welt-Ausstellung in St. Louis. Berlin: Ferd. Dümmlers.
Liliencron, Detlev von. Anno 1870. Edited by Wilhelm Bernhardt. (Heath's Modern Language Series.) Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Locke, John. How to Bring up Your Children. A. Wessels. 50 cents.
Lyman, O. L. The Trail of the Grand Seigneur. New Amsterdam Book Company. $1.50.
Mackaye, Percy. The Canterbury Pilgrims: A Comedy. Macmillan.
Meillet, A. Introduction à l'Etude Comparative des Langues Indo-Européennes. Paris: Hachette & Cie.
Massé, H. J. L. J. A Short History and Description of the Church and Abbey of Mont S. Michel. (Bell's Handbooks to Continental Churches.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan.
May, T. H. D. The Aeneid of Virgil, Literally Rendered into Blank Verse. 2 vols. London: David Nutt. 5s.
McCarthy, Justin. British Political Portraits. The Outlook Company. $1.50.
McMurry, Charles. Special Method in the Reading of Complete English Classics in the Grades of the Common School. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Mills, W. J. Glimpses of Colonial Society and the Life at Princeton College, 1766-1773, by One of the Class of 1763. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Mitchell, S. W. A Comedy of Conscience. Century Co. $1.
Molitor, F. A., and Beard, E. J. Manual for Resident Engineers. John Wiley & Sons.
Moore, J. T. Songs and Stories from Tennessee. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.
Owen, S. G. A. Persi Flacci et D. Iuni Iuvenalis Saturae. Henry Frowde. 2s. 6d.
Pattee, F. L. The Poems of Philip Freneau, Poet of the American Revolution. Vol. I. Princeton: Princeton University.
Pemberton, T. E. The Life of Bret Harte. Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.50.
Pierson, A. T. The Keswick Movement in Precept and Practice. Funk & Wagnalls. Co. 50c.
Poore, H. R. Pictorial Composition and the Critical Judgment of Pictures. The Baker & Taylor Co.
Powell, Frances. The House on the Hudson. Scribners. $1.50.
Ramsay, J. H. The Angevin Empire. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $3.25.
Redfield, C. L. Control of Heredity. Philadelphia: Monarch Book Co.
Rochelle, J. H. Life of Rear-Admiral John Randolph Tucker. Washington: Neale Pub. Co.
Roersch, Alphonse. Chr. Ischyrius: Homulus; Ghent: Librarie Néerlandaise. 2s.
Sangster, Margaret E. When Angels Come to Men. Fleming H. Revell Company.
Schiller, Friedrich. Maria Stuart. Edited by O. E. Eggert. (The Lake German Classics.) Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co.
Scott, Sir. Walter. Lady of the Lake. Edited by G. R. Carpenter. (Longmans' English Classics.) Longmans, Green & Co. 50 cents.
Scott, W. E. D. The Story of a Bird Lover. The Outlook Company. $1.50.
Semple, L. B. Irving's Oliver Goldsmith. Longmans, Green & Co.
Smith, Hermann. Modern Organ Tuning. London: William Reeves; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Smith, Mary E. E. Eskimo Stories. Rand, McNally & Co.
Stedman, E. C. and T. L. The Complete Pocket-Guide to Europe. W. R. Jenkins.
Temple Classics: (1) Lays of Ancient Rome. T. B. Macaulay; (2) The Borough: A Poem. George Crabbe; (3) The Bee and Other Essays. Oliver Goldsmith. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents each.
Tennyson's Gareth and Lynett, Lancelot and Elaine, and the Passing of Arthur. Edited by Sophie C. Hart. (Longmans' English Classics.) Longmans, Green & Co.
Thacher, J. B. Christopher Columbus: His Life, his Work, his Remains. Vol. I. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Webster, Jean. When Patty Went to College. Century Company. $1.50.
Wilbrandt, Adolf. Jugendliebe. Edited by Théodore Henckels. H. Holt & Co. 30 cents.
Williamson, A. W. Papers on Etherification and on the Constitution of Salts. Edinburgh: The Alembic Club; Chicago: University Press.
Willson, Beckles. The New America: A Study of the Imperial Republic. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
Willison, J. S. Sir Wilfrid Laurier and the Liberal Party: A Political History. 2 vols. Toronto: George N. Morang & Co.
Woods, Margaret L. The Princess of Hanover. H. Holt & Co. $1.50.

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